

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

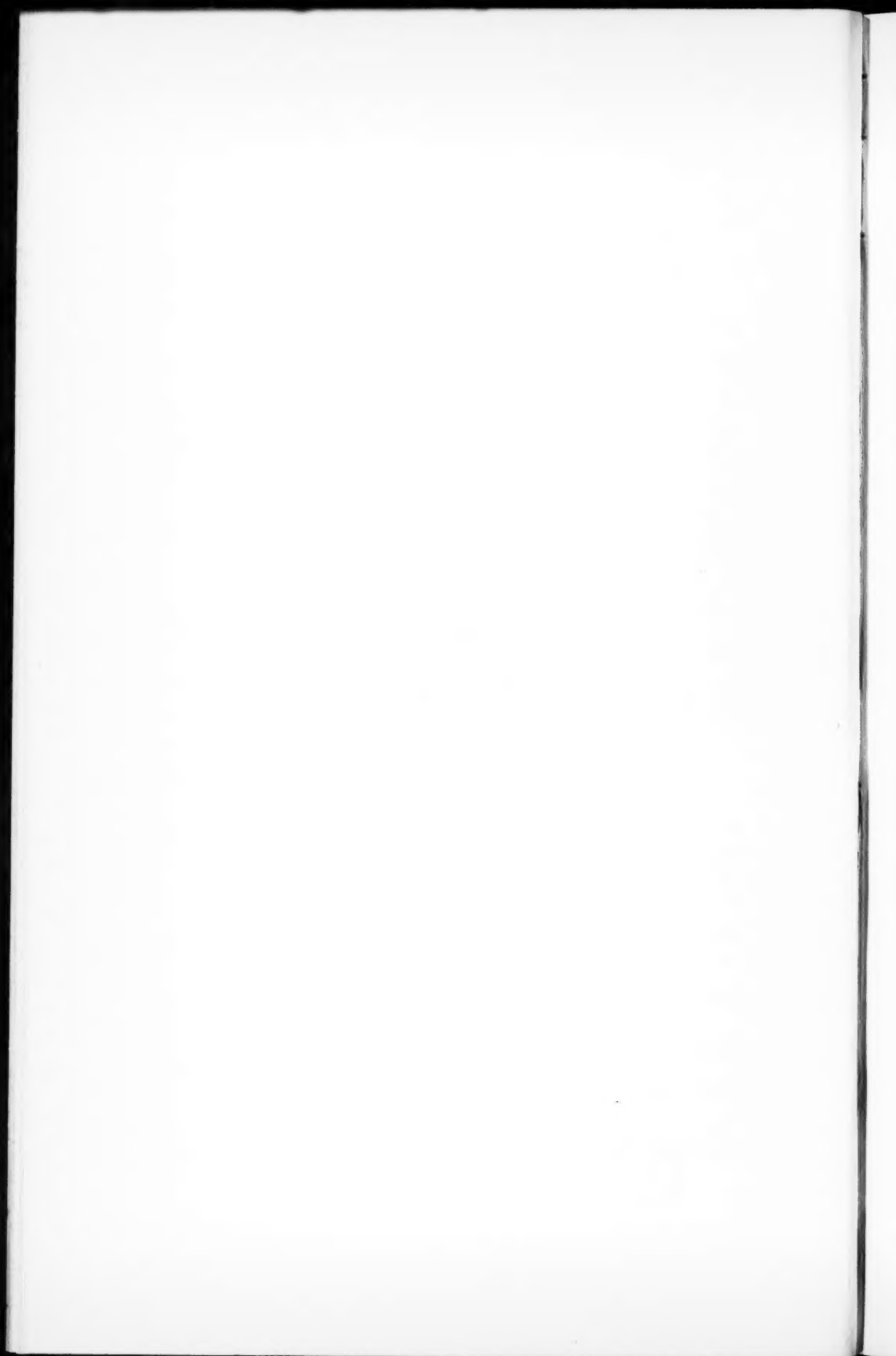
THE JOURNAL *of the* American
Association *of* Collegiate Registrars
and Admissions Officers



SPRING, 1956

VOLUME THIRTY-ONE

NUMBER THREE



COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

THE JOURNAL *of the* American
Association of Collegiate Registrars
and Admissions Officers

A LOOK AT THE COLLEGE TEACHER SUPPLY AND DEMAND PROBLEM	<i>Ray C. Maul</i>	269
THE PROBLEM OF NUMBERS IN HIGHER EDUCATION: FROM THE STANDPOINT OF PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS	<i>Simeon E. Leland</i>	276
THE NEGRO COLLEGE FACES DESEGREGATION	<i>J. Newton Hill</i>	291
HUMANITIES RESEARCH AS CREATION	<i>Howard Mumford Jones</i>	298
THE LAND GRANT COLLEGES SINCE 1900	<i>F. D. Farrell</i>	302
THE PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE OF ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS	<i>Frank H. Bowles</i>	309
IS A HISTORICAL DIRECTORY OF HIGHER EDUCATION NEEDED?	<i>Walter Crosby Eells</i>	328
TRAVEL-STUDY ABROAD	<i>Clara H. Koenig</i>	336
A RE-EVALUATION OF PLACEMENT SERVICES	<i>H. D. Richardson and Robert F. Menke</i>	350
EDITORIAL COMMENT		354
BOOK REVIEWS		360
IN THE JOURNALS		381
REPORTED TO US		384
REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS		395
PLACEMENT SERVICE		408

Contributors to This Issue

•

FRANK H. BOWLES is Director of the College Entrance Examination Board.

•

CLARA H. KOENIG is Assistant to the Dean of Admissions and Records, University of Minnesota.

•

WALTER CROSBY EELLS has held many offices in education, in this country and abroad. He is now retired.

•

SIMEON E. LELAND is Dean of the College of Liberal Arts, Northwestern University.

•

F. D. FARRELL is President Emeritus of Kansas State College.

•

RAY C. MAUL is Assistant Director, Research Division, National Education Association.

•

J. NEWTON HILL is Dean of the College, Lincoln University, Pennsylvania.

•

ROBERT F. MENKE is Director of Placement and Professor of Education, Arizona State College, Tempe.

•

HOWARD MUMFORD JONES is Chairman of the American Council of Learned Societies and Professor of English, Harvard University.

H. D. RICHARDSON is Academic Vice President and Professor of Education, Arizona State College, Tempe.

THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, which was founded in Detroit in 1817 and moved to Ann Arbor in 1837, has long been known as the "Mother of State Universities," because of its leadership in the development of state-supported education. This role fell to the University because the State of Michigan, after its admission to the Union in 1837, was the leader in following the phrase from the Ordinance of 1787 that "religion, morality and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."

These words are inscribed over the columns of Angell Hall, named for James Burrill Angell, third president of the University. Built in 1924, it houses a part of the activities of the College of Literature, Science and the Arts, the pioneer and still largest of the fifteen schools and colleges of the University. A sixteenth college, the Flint College of the University of Michigan, will come into existence this fall; and a new North Campus, across the Huron River valley, has been developed to provide for expansion beyond the confines of the Central Campus.



ANGELL HALL, THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

SPRING
1956

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

VOLUME 31
NUMBER 3

THE JOURNAL *of the* American
Association of Collegiate Registrars
and Admissions Officers

A Look at the College Teacher Supply and Demand Problem

RAY C. MAUL

REGISTRARS and admissions officers have a peculiar stake in the purely quantitative aspects of future college enrollments. Along with other administrative officers they are also concerned with the qualitative aspects of the problem of staffing the colleges with competent teaching personnel. This question is not one of numbers only. We need to know how the demands will be distributed among the general teaching fields, from what sources new college teachers are likely to come, and how well they will be prepared.

Answers to these and other pertinent questions were sought in a recently completed study of college teacher supply and demand by the Research Division of the National Education Association.¹ The report does not point to any easy or early solution of the problem. Rather, it brings to light much evidence to support the fear that this may be the most baffling of all problems to confront the college administrator in the next decade.

Experienced administrators recall the desperate measures to which many of them resorted to accommodate the "G.I. bulge" of 1946-51. Doubtless many staffs yet contain persons of meager or uncertain

¹ National Education Association, Research Division, "Teacher Supply and Demand in Degree-Granting Institutions, 1954-55," *Research Bulletin* 33: 4, Dec. 1955. Pp. 40.

qualifications who were added to meet that emergency. Doubtless, also, many new appointees for the 1955-56 year are lacking in some of the desired qualifications. Perhaps the biggest difference between the two periods is that the flooding of campuses with the veterans of World War II was recognized from its beginning as a temporary affair, whereas the present new high mark in enrollments is likely to be raised each year, as far as we can see into the future. Obviously, therefore, we need to take stock of our present resources as a basis for sound planning.

Let us pass quickly over the enormous problem of providing the physical facilities which expanded enrollments are at this moment requiring. If funds are available, we can acquire land, purchase materials, assemble workmen, and execute an architect's design on schedule. But to produce competent teachers is quite a different matter. Much time is required, and the desired kind of person must be convinced that he wants to devote the required time to preparation for college teaching. And reasonable inducements must be in view if we are to attract the requisite number of this desired kind of person. The evidence is lacking that an adequate supply is in prospect. Certainly the competition of other occupations is now thinning the ranks of advanced degree recipients who have interest in and aptitude for teaching.

PRESENT FULL-TIME STAFF LACKS PREPARATION

Without the advantage of a generally accepted standard of preparation for college teaching, it seems clear that many among the present total corps of full-time teachers have only modest preparation. Only two in five (40.5 per cent) hold the doctor's degree, and as many as 11.5 per cent have not yet attained master's degree status.

On the average, the nonpublic universities have the best equipped staffs among the seven types of institutions included in the report, with 51.9 per cent having doctor's degrees. Next come public universities and land-grant colleges, with 44.0 per cent; then the large nonpublic colleges, with 38.0 per cent. Teachers colleges, with only 29.9 per cent of their staffs at this level of preparation, are at the other end of the list. The unfavorable position of this latter group seems to be offset, at least in part, however, by the fact that they lead in the per cent of staff members working beyond the master's toward the doctor's degree. Also, teachers colleges have the fewest

(3.2 per cent) of full-time staff members below the master's degree level.

Since all types of institutions are facing the era of expanding enrollments with many staff members of modest preparation, the question of stimulating further study by granting leaves of absence with full or part salary becomes important. Here again the situation is not encouraging. Just half (50.7 per cent) of the institutions maintain such a policy. And within this latter group one-third of the institutions limit this financial aid to staff members of certain ranks.

COMPOSITION OF PRESENT FULL-TIME STAFF,
BY TEACHING FIELD, BY SEX, AND BY AGE

In what general fields of instruction will the enlarged student bodies of the future concentrate their efforts? Is it likely that the sciences, and particularly the physical sciences, are in for a greater-than-average expansion? Or will the bulk of future enlarged enrollments be concentrated in junior and community-type colleges, with major emphasis upon instruction in courses that logically terminate (from a vocational standpoint) at Grade XIV?

These are only a few of the perplexing questions to be answered if reasonably intelligent guidance is to be given students contemplating preparation for college teaching. At present the full-time teaching staffs in all types of institutions are distributed in this way: social sciences, 10.9 per cent; fine arts, 10.8 per cent; English, 8.3 per cent; physical sciences, 8.1 per cent; education, 7.5 per cent; engineering, 7.0 per cent; biological sciences, 5.9 per cent; physical and health education, 5.3 per cent; foreign languages, 5.2 per cent; and business and commerce, 5.2 per cent. Agriculture and mathematics have just over 4 per cent each, but no other instructional field can claim one in 25 of all full-time teachers. The impact of future enrollments upon this distribution of teaching staff is yet to be assessed. Can this impact be anticipated, and can future supply of qualified teachers be influenced to meet any changes which can be foreseen?

And what about the more liberal use of women? How solid are the assumptions that college teaching is a man's job?

Even when the department of home economics is included, four of every five (78.2 per cent) full-time college teachers are men. Excluding agriculture, engineering, and industrial and vocational arts, where all-male staffs might be expected, the study shows men

dominating other instructional fields in this manner: physical sciences, 94 per cent; social sciences, 89.3 per cent; psychology, 86.6 per cent; mathematics, 85.8 per cent; biological sciences, 85.1 per cent; business and commerce, 79.8 per cent; fine arts, 73.9 per cent; foreign languages, 72.2 per cent; English, 71.3 per cent; education, 63.1 per cent.

For the past decade just about nine of every ten doctor's degree recipients have been men. At the master's degree level it has been two men of every three recipients. One might ask, what is the relation, if any, between the number of women seeking advanced degrees and the number of opportunities in college teaching open to them? Here, also, is the question of subsidies for advanced study (scholarships and assistantships) as they are divided between men and women. It might be enlightening to know the per cent of men and of women candidates for the doctor's degree who reach that level of advanced study only because substantial aid was available.

Another interesting characteristic of the present full-time staff is age. Among the men the median age is 42.4 years, among the women, 46.5 years. The total staff shows a median of 43.1 years, with 25 per cent being above 52.5 and 25 per cent being below 35.4 years. As many as 8.4 per cent are beyond 60 years of age, and another 10.2 per cent are between 55 and 60.

Some 40 per cent of the institutions have established 65 years as the age of retirement; another 37.3 per cent regularly retain staff members in full-time service until age 70 is reached. Some of this latter group, contemplating integration of their retirement plans with OASI, foresee the lowering of retirement opportunities to age 65, to conform with the provisions of the social security law. A few institutions report an earlier age for the retirement of women than of men.

WHAT IS THE DEMAND?

Many investigators have mulled over the problem of measuring the future demand for college teachers. Usually, one of two quite different approaches is followed. The method most frequently used is based chiefly upon one's ability to foresee such future happenings as (a) year-by-year increases in enrollment, and (b) student-teacher ratio to be maintained. With these two factors predicated a gross figure is arrived at. Refinements of this figure depend upon such questions as (a) distribution of total enrollment among fields,

(b) further proliferation of subject matter, and (c) number of institutions of sufficient size to permit the elimination or reduction in number of small classes.

Another approach starts with these questions: What has been the demand during a designated period? What characteristics of this demand can be identified? What observable influences gave rise to this demand? What future influences can be foreseen, and what will be the extent of their impact? This is the approach used in the investigation under discussion.

To minimize the complications, this study was limited (a) to degree-granting institutions, and (b) to new full-time teaching staff members employed during 1953-54 and 1954-55. The data were sought for two years, rather than one, so that the influence of a transitory factor might be detected.

In this study it was assumed that the demand for teachers would be indicated by the actual employment of persons who, the previous year, were not so engaged in any degree-granting institution. (It was recognized, of course, that this would not uncover the demand for a teacher to fill a position for which budgetary provision had been made if the place remained vacant through lack of an acceptable candidate.)

In the full report these newly employed full-time teachers—construed to have met the demand during 1953-54 and 1954-55—are identified according to (a) sex, (b) amount of formal preparation, (c) field of instruction, (d) type of employing institution, and (e) source. In brief, these newly employed full-time teachers consisted of 76.3 per cent men in 1953-54 and 75.9 per cent men in 1954-55, as compared with 78.1 per cent men in the entire full-time staffs; the preparation of the new teachers (30.8 per cent with doctor's degrees and 18.5 per cent below the master's degree level) was decidedly below that of the entire full-time staff (with 40.5 per cent holding the doctor's degree and 10.4 per cent below the master's degree level); the distribution of the new teachers among the fields of instruction varied considerably from the general pattern (the demand for new physical science and mathematics teachers indicated an acute situation); just about one-half (51.5 per cent) of all new full-time teachers came directly from graduate schools. The number of these new teachers employed in 1954-55 was equal to 7.8 per cent of the total full-time staff

In interpreting these facts concerning the demand for teachers within known time limits, each college administrator will naturally analyze the factors which underlie the existing conditions in the service area of his institution. In other words, he can view this demand for teachers in the light of the factors which contributed to it. He thus establishes a basis for evaluating future influences which he can foresee, and the manner in which they may dictate future demands.

WHAT ABOUT SUPPLY?

Perhaps the most baffling aspect of the problem confronts the investigator who seeks to measure the future supply of available, competent candidates for college teaching positions. There is no generally accepted standard by which to identify a "qualified candidate." In one field the doctor's degree may be as much a requirement as is the master's degree in another field. Requirements in the same field may vary as widely from one institution to another.

Similarly, the content as well as the total amount of formal training is subject to varied judgments. Some institutions, notably teachers colleges, are insisting that new staff members come to them with professional preparation for teaching—many even prefer candidates with successful teaching experience in the grade levels for which they will prepare undergraduate college students to teach. In other cases the interest of the employing officer is limited to the candidate's mastery of his subject.

In almost every instance the determination of these matters is in the hands of the local institutional officials. Thus the answer to the question, "What are the identifying characteristics of a 'qualified' candidate?" is not at hand.

Again, the means of identifying an "available" candidate are absent. The number of persons receiving the doctor's degree in one field, for example, does not necessarily have any relation to the number of such persons who are available as prospective teachers. The U. S. Office of Education annually issues a concise report of total degrees conferred, field by field, but that report does not answer either of these two questions: Is the degree recipient already employed, in teaching or otherwise? Is he interested in teaching, or will the opportunities in other occupations attract him?

To illustrate the latter point: In 1955, doctor's degrees conferred

in the physical sciences totaled 1713; in social sciences, 1170. In colleges and universities, the physical sciences staff comprises 8.1 per cent of the total; the social sciences, 10.9 per cent. Yet 69.3 per cent of the institutions reported a shortage of physical science candidates, while only 9.9 per cent so reported in social science. Mathematics, which claims only 4 per cent of the total staffs, was reported as a field of shortage of candidates just three times as often as was social science.

Despite the difficulties, the problem of supply must be more carefully studied. For example, the year-to-year trend in total bachelor's degrees conferred, the distribution of this total group among the fields of study, the annual variations in this distribution, and in the sex division of the total—what is the influence of these variations upon the number, sex, and field distribution of master's degree recipients? And how many years later are these variations likely to exert their influence?

Again, what factors in the national economy influence the distribution of degree recipients—bachelor's, master's, and doctor's—among the various gainful occupations? What factors in the past have reflected the flow of advanced degree recipients into college teaching? Are some of these factors likely to be of a permanent nature, and others temporary?

Some institutional authorities express confidence that they can meet their own future staff needs by careful observation and selection from among their own graduate students. Will such policy of in-breeding ultimately affect the philosophy and methods of that institution? And what does this mean for the institutions without graduate schools?

Perhaps it is not too harsh to say that colleges and universities generally must take a critical look at their guidance and counseling efforts. And in order to strengthen these services, both to undergraduate and graduate students, many more facts must be assembled. Many details of the present complicated structure of college and university staffs are unknown. A systematic effort to attract promising students to college teaching is not yet in evidence in many instances. It seems fair to say that such effort, to have promise of success, must start from a fuller understanding of present conditions and the influences that brought them about. Perhaps it is here that the role of the registrar and admissions officer comes into clearest focus.

The Problem of Numbers in Higher Education: From the Standpoint of Private Institutions*

SIMEON E. LELAND

I

THE FACTS and projections of population growth indicate a steady, as well as a substantial increase in the number of students attending institutions of higher education from now until 1970. The numbers depend not on births minus deaths, although excessive death rates could upset the calculation, but rather upon the determination and ability of the present population growing into college age to secure a college education. Those students who will be going to college during the next fifteen years have already been born.

It involves relatively little guesswork to project the size of the age group from which college students will be selected. This age group—from 18 to 21—will in 1955 contain from 8,081,000 to 8,786,000, depending on the estimates chosen.¹ By 1970 the college-age group will contain from 13,610,000 to 14,278,000 persons, again depending upon the methods of estimation employed. This prospective increase of between five and six million is about equal to the college-age population of 1900 and is over twice as much as college enrollments in 1954.² The increase of some 60 per cent expected between 1955 and 1970 is one of the greatest in the nation's history. About these facts there can be no dispute.

When it comes to predicting how many youths from the college-age group will actually go to college, and how many facilities or faculty will be required to provide the educational opportunities they deserve, differences of opinion arise. Nor is it agreed that facilities

* A paper delivered at the Midwestern Regional Conference of the Council of State Governments, held in co-operation with the Michigan Commission on Interstate Co-operation, Mackinac Island, July 25, 1955.

¹ The first estimate is that of the Census Bureau; the second that of Ronald B. Thompson, Registrar, Ohio State University. Cf. *Faculty Requirements and Faculty Supply in Collegiate Business Teaching: 1954-1970*. Report of the Committee on the Future Requirements of Trained Teaching Personnel, p. 30.

² The total fall enrollment in 1954 was about 2,500,000 students. *Higher Education*, 11:5, Jan. 1955, pp. 61-62.

should be provided for all who may want to go to college. It is my belief that society, either through public or private education, has no obligation to provide facilities or staff for those having low aptitude, little determination, and less industry, who merely want to grow older while they acquire the social veneer provided by four (or somewhat fewer) years amid pleasant quasi-intellectual surroundings. If students cannot profit from a college education and are not willing to work harder than ever before to acquire it, society owes them nothing. It has no obligation to provide facilities to waste on such individuals. Compulsory education, even in response to social pressures, ends long before college is reached. Nor does society have any obligation to provide resources for institutions with low standards which merely want to become big. Some of them seem to think that size is a criterion of greatness. In my opinion, society's resources can be transferred to better uses. On the other hand, facilities and financial aid for those who need it should be provided for all who have the ability and the determination to get a college education. This is a social obligation. Whatever the actual student population turns out to be, it must be admitted all around that both public and private institutions will have to be expanded to meet the reasonable needs of the oncoming college students.

The expansion probably will not be as great as some of the champions of public education would have us believe, nor as niggardly as some of the apostles of private education like to imply. Those who ask for appropriations from legislatures often believe that exaggeration of requirements is a budgetary necessity designed to leave a safe minimum of funds when estimates are hacked down to size by legislative committees. The tendency to project estimates on the least conservative of assumptions grossly overstates the problem: if achieved it would be wasteful of taxpayer's dollars and, in the long run, would upset the balance and lower the standards of higher education. The unwillingness of private institutions to face the facts of population growth and the assertion instead that they are going to raise the quality of their educational output but not the numbers of their students, that they are not going to solicit funds for the expansion of private education, are both antisocial in irresponsibility and harmful to the balance and standards of higher education over the long run. Such an attitude would place all of the responsibility for meeting the oncoming deluge of students upon public institutions

and would so lower the prestige and position of private institutions that they would, in the future, have less and less influence upon the course and standards of higher education. In 1900, sixty-two per cent of enrollments in higher educational institutions were in privately controlled institutions; by 1950, only forty-nine per cent of the students were there enrolled, as shown in Table I.

TABLE I
ENROLLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION: PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS
(000 Omitted)

Year	Total	Publicly Controlled	Per Cent in Publicly Controlled	Privately Controlled	Per Cent in Privately Controlled
1900	238	91	38.2%	147	61.8%
1910	355	166	46.8	189	53.2
1920	597	315	52.8	282	47.2
1930	1,101	533	48.4	568	51.6
1940	1,494	796	53.3	698	46.7
1950	2,659	1,355	51.0	1,304	49.0

Source: *Statistical Abstract of the U.S.*, 1953, p. 125.

Fortunately in this period the shift of total expenditures between public and private institutions was only slightly in favor of the public sector of higher education, as shown in Table II.

TABLE II
EXPENDITURES OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION: PUBLIC AND PRIVATE
(Amounts in Thousands of Dollars)

Year	Total	By Public Institutions	Per Cent Of Total	By Private Institutions	Per Cent Of Total
1920	\$ 216,366	\$ 115,597	53.4%	\$100,769	46.6%
1930	632,249	288,909	45.7	343,340	54.3
1940	605,755	332,592	54.9	273,163	45.1
1950	2,123,275	1,174,125	55.3	949,150	44.7

Source: *Statistical Abstract of the U.S.*, 1953, p. 125.

These data indicate that in spite of enrollment shifts private institutions are holding their own and are carrying out their traditional functions of leadership in training, in research, and in experimentation; but even this is debatable. If, however, private institutions do not expand enrollments and facilities, by 1970 they will have only

about twenty per cent of the total number of college students, cutting their influence on higher education by more than one half. And if private institutions think they can attract only the better students—and faculty—they are as naïve as they will be mistaken. They must prepare either to take increased numbers or to surrender their present position and present influence, whatever it is, in higher education.

II

Neither facilities nor staffs can be expanded on the basis of general principles, pious wishes, or platitudes. The data must be examined to determine real needs. It is my belief that current estimates of future requirements in higher education are overstated. The data are being used to try to secure more expansion of facilities than is required.

In the first place, what portion of the college-age group will matriculate? Obviously, no one knows; but the percentage who enroll in institutions of higher education has been continuously increasing. From 4.0 per cent in 1900, to 8.1 per cent in 1920, to 15.3 per cent in 1940, to 29.1 per cent in 1954—the ratio of the age group 18 to 21 going to college has been increasing.³ In 1951-52, almost 35 per cent (34.9) of that age group was enrolled in higher education. This is the greatest percentage going to college in any year in the history of the nation.

Who knows what percentage of the population in the future will go to college? Will the rate of increase continue? It has almost doubled every twenty years. The thirty per cent of the age-group which would have been expected in 1960 has already been exceeded. The upward trend, too, has been little affected by depression. Following the debacle of 1929, there was a slight decrease in the number and percentage of the population going to college, but the decline was of short duration. By 1935, the percentage was greater than in 1927 or 1929.⁴ This quick recovery of college enrollments suggests that the ratio of

³ Percentages 1900 to 1940 taken from *Notes on Harvard College: Graphic and Statistical*, Cambridge, 1955. These roughly correspond to Ronald Thompson's data for the same period, as follows: 1899-1900, 4.0%; 1919-20, 8.1%; 1939-40, 17.7%; 1952-53, 31.0%. *The Impending Tidal Wave of Students*, American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, 1954, p. 20. The percentage for 1954 is taken from *Faculty Requirements and Faculty Supply in Collegiate Business Teaching: 1954-1970*, p. 31.

⁴ See data in *Faculty Requirements and Faculty Supply in Collegiate Business Teaching: 1954-1970*, p. 31.

the population going to college is, on the whole, subject only to slight variation because of economic depression. Particular institutions were greatly affected during the 1930's but the aggregate variation was moderate indeed. Industry lost some of its financial attraction to students, many of whom returned to colleges and universities to finish their education and to prepare themselves for better future jobs.⁵ Severe depressions in the United States in the predictable future do not seem likely in view of the attitude of all political parties toward the expansion, creation, and use of purchasing power by the government. Hence provisions for educating the college population up to 1970 need give little weight to economic fluctuations—severe inflation likewise being ruled out of account. But should depression come, the high cost of college education being what it is, a substantial shift from private education with its high tuition rates to public education with low tuition might well occur. Again, since severe depression is an unlikely possibility, this consequence as well as the negligible change in the ratio of those going to college should be ruled out of account.

While no one feels much confidence in his ability to predict the ratio of the population which will go to college, numerous estimates and projections have been made. The most common projections have been made on the assumption that 31, 33.8, 35, 40 and 50 per cent of the college-age group will matriculate in college by 1970.⁶ The Population Study Group reporting for the Michigan Council of State College Presidents in 1954, took as the college-age group for its projections that state population between 18 and 24 years.⁷ With this

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 12n.

⁶ Cf. *The Impending Tidal Wave of Students*, pp. 22-27; *Notes on Harvard College: Graphic and Statistical; Faculty Requirements and Faculty Supply in Collegiate Business Teaching: 1954-1970*, pp. 9-12, 30-31.

⁷ *Future School and College Enrollments in Michigan: 1955-1970. A Report by the Population Study Group—Higher Education Study—The Michigan Council of State College Presidents*. Ann Arbor, 1954, pp. 21-44. The case for this extension is stated (p. 21) as follows:

"Supporting evidence for the shift to 18-24 years as the 'college-age' population base is found in 1950 census data on the school enrollment by age. This shows that 70 per cent of the 36,000 18-year-old youths in Michigan who were attending school were still in high school or in the grades. On the other hand, many of those in college were over 21 years of age. In fact, there were 61,025 persons from 22 to 29 years of age who were enrolled in school and of these 42,125 were in college. It, therefore, seems more reasonable to consider the college-age group to be of a wider range than just those from 18-21 years. The age group 18 to 24 seems to be a more realistic base group for forecasts of college-age population and potential college enrollment. This statement is also partly founded on the

larger age group lower ratios of those going to college were utilized.⁸

The wider age group adopted by the Michigan Study Group was based on the fact that "an increasing proportion of college students are graduate and special students," about which more will be said later. But the Study Group also presented statistics of the age group 18-21, which indicated that 23.2 per cent of the college-age group were going to college in Michigan,⁹ while Thompson's statistics for the country as a whole showed a ratio of 31 per cent.¹⁰

The data make clear the fact that from state to state there is significant variation in the percentage of population going to college. In 1950, the ratios ranged from 45.06 per cent in the District of Columbia and 32.19 per cent in Utah to 10.60 per cent in Mississippi.¹¹ Statistics of enrollment increase in the two decades from 1930 to 1950 show the same variation. Total enrollment in the United States increased about 150 per cent in this period, the range being from 35 per

evidence that an increasing proportion of college students are graduate and special students. A large number of college students 22 to 29 years of age, especially men, have passed beyond the senior year. Of the 21,500 males from 22 to 29 years of age who were attending school in 1950, in Michigan, 6,600 or 30 per cent, were enrolled in their fifth or higher year of college."

⁸ The ratio in Michigan of those 18-24 enrolled in Colleges and Universities was as follows:

1900	2.8%	1940	9.8%
1910	4.2	1950	14.2
1920	4.6	1953	15.0
1930	7.5		

Ibid., p. 4. Projections for this age group utilized enrollment ratios of 12.5%, 15.0%, 15.26%, 16.18%, 19.30%. See p. 35. In 1950, Michigan ranked 22nd in the ratio of the 18-21 population going to college. The ratio was 19.96%. See pp. 42-43.

⁹ Per cent of college-age population 18-21 in Michigan enrolled in colleges:

Year	Per Cent
1900	4.5%
1910	6.7
1920	9.0
1930	13.3
1940	16.4
1950	20.0 (Excluding veterans)
	23.2 (Including 50% of veterans)

Ibid., p. 41.

¹⁰ *The Impending Tidal Wave of Students*, p. 20.

¹¹ *Future School and College Enrollments in Michigan 1955-1970*, pp. 42-43. These data are based upon the 18-21 age group and exclude veterans from resident enrollments.

cent in North Dakota to 560 per cent in Florida.¹² The problem is not the same in each state and what each state should do to meet its own needs is by no means the same. A few states, such as Michigan and California,¹³ have published carefully prepared studies of their problems. Those states that have not done so need to get busy.

III

The enrollment statistics on which the projections of future need have been based also overstate that need. There is no standard definition of "student enrollment." The most frequently used data, those of the United States Office of Education, include in their annual tabulations of student enrollment all of those taking courses which carry credit toward a degree or certificate.¹⁴ The tabulation includes undergraduates, graduates, special students, professional students, full- and part-time students, day and evening students, students on main campuses, branches, and extension centers. Students with normal loads and those taking one course at a time are given equal weight. California in its recent study added in correspondence students and those in the summer session.¹⁵ The United States Office of Education in its Fall Enrollment estimates excludes correspondence enrollees, students taking noncredit courses, summer session students, and pupils in nursery, laboratory, preschool, and similar training adjuncts.

No additional educational facilities are needed to take care of an influx of night or extension students, including adult education. Much of this is off-campus instruction, in buildings not otherwise used at night, in rented quarters, in rooms furnished by employers for use of employees, and in public schools usually closed in the evenings. These facilities are generally both expansible or available for hire. The staffs are often recruited from daytime jobs or from daytime faculties who do extra work to supplement inadequate salaries. Night courses are almost indefinitely expansible both as to facilities and staff. Their inclusion overstates the need by no less than 10 per

¹² *The Impending Tidal Wave of Students*, p. 16.

¹³ The Michigan Study is cited, *supra*. Also see *A Restudy of the Needs of California in Higher Education*, as authorized by the California Legislature 1953 Regular Session. Prepared for The Liaison Committee of The Regents of the University of California and The State Board of Education by its Joint Staff and The Chief Consultant, Sacramento, California, Feb., 1955.

¹⁴ Cf. *Higher Education*, 11:2, Jan. 1955, p. 63.

¹⁵ *A Restudy of the Needs of California in Higher Education*, Ch. II, p. 11.

cent.¹⁶ The same overstatement occurs from the inclusion of part-time students. They scatter themselves over many institutions and over a wide variety of courses. They have always been easily absorbed; they seldom add materially to teaching loads and even where special programs are developed for them the courses are given at off-peak hours and require neither additional physical facilities nor full-time staff additions. The same situation prevails for special students. Data on the number of part-time students are not segregated in all compilations. The estimates of the Office of Education do not identify them though they are included in aggregate enrollments. In 1954, Raymond Walters's tabulations showed 1,383,750 full-time students and 1,895,280 for total enrollment.¹⁷ The difference of over 511,000 students includes the part-time students and perhaps some others who do not qualify as full-time students. This body of 511,000 in the 846 accredited institutions is about 20 per cent of the aggregate college attendance as estimated by the Office of Education for 1954. (About 27 per cent of Walters's total enrollment.)

Practically no additions to physical facilities or to staff will be required to take care of twice the number of graduate students as are now enrolled. Such an increase can be accomplished with no devaluation of educational standards. Every graduate school could accommodate more students than are now enrolled; most departments and professors seek more graduate students. Even Harvard reports that annually it is left with unfilled fellowships. Some of our graduate schools complain about inadequate facilities, such as graduate study and social centers, dormitories, quarters for married students, and even places for students to work. There is reason to doubt if library facilities, particularly for research, and places in which such research can be conducted, are adequate in many institutions. But all of these are present needs, not future requirements, and exist quite apart from the problem of expanding numbers. To the extent that current needs are adequately met, future requirements will be appropriately

¹⁶ Raymond Walters in his "Statistics of Attendance in American Universities and Colleges, 1954," *School and Society*, 80:2048, Dec. 11, 1954, p. 187, reported the 1954 attendance at 80 of the 102 member institutions at 202,601 students. *The News Letter* of the Association of University Evening Colleges, 3:2, Jan. 1955, gave the fall enrollment in 86 of its member institutions as 212,322.

¹⁷ Raymond Walters, *loc. cit.*, pp. 177, 187. The part-time enrollment in 70 of the 77 member institutions of the Association of Urban Universities in 1954 was 274,115, or over 10 per cent of the fall enrollment as estimated by the Office of Education. Cf. *Higher Education*, 9:5, Jan. 1955, p. 63.

cared for in large measure. In short, increased facilities (apart from expansion of libraries) and enlarged faculties are not required at the graduate level. At present the graduate enrollment is about 140,000 students,¹⁸ or about 6 per cent of the total enrollment. In Michigan, in 1950, 30 per cent of those attending schools were enrolled in their fifth or higher year of college.¹⁹ This, of course, includes attendance at professional schools.

In general, an increase in staff and facilities in professional schools is not required to meet the demands of the prospective student body of 1970. Engineering colleges are now worried about declining enrollments and the attractiveness of their profession to young people. Law schools can also accommodate vastly more students—perhaps enough to cover the costs of legal education. Theological seminaries are not believed to be overcrowded either. Medical schools have been increasing in number—slowly—and are not as badly handicapped as a few years ago. Dental schools already complain that they are not able to train dentists as fast as population increases warrant. Any increase in the college population will increase the number of "premedics" and "predents"—all of whom will knock at the doors of these professional schools. Already the growth in aggregate population justifies an increase in the number of doctors and dentists. It is probable that increased facilities now needed for training doctors and dentists may have to be further increased by 1970. This is a special problem not linked absolutely with the prospective student bulge.

Those who want to rest their case for expansion of higher educational facilities and staff upon aggregate enrollments, present and prospective, thus greatly overstate their case, perhaps by as much as 40 per cent. Few states, moreover, have tried to estimate the extent of unfilled capacity in existing institutions. Enrollments in 1954 were just about what they were in 1949, the year of largest previous attendance. And even now many institutions could accommodate greatly increased numbers with no physical additions to plant and with relatively inexpensive expansions of staff, provided the added students were willing to go where the unfilled capacities exist. The availability of existing facilities could be further augmented by the increased

¹⁸ Estimated on basis of degrees conferred in 1952-53 with expectation of three years in school for doctors, one and a half years for masters, plus an allowance of 20 per cent for students who will not become degree candidates.

¹⁹ *Future School and College Enrollments in Michigan: 1955-1970*, p. 21. (Quoted in footnote, *supra*.)

scheduling of late afternoon and evening classes in our typical daytime institutions,²⁰ by running continuously the year around with the summer the equivalent of any other quarter, and by using Saturdays more largely for education than for recreation and amusements. Without any changes in plant or staff, every college and university has room to accommodate a substantially greater number of students in advanced classes—those for juniors, seniors, and graduates.²¹ It should be clear that those who seek to get bigger institutions and more of them, largely at public expense, do not analyze closely the statistics they so frequently quote. Private institutions, moreover, hate to face the fact that they must secure added funds to participate in the responsibilities which even the most conservative statistics indicate will inevitably devolve upon them. Unless private institutions meet this challenge and continue to take their fair proportion of students they may as well give up their present positions of influence in higher education.

IV

As has just been indicated there are many things which might be done to increase the ability of existing institutions to meet the increased number of those who will soon enter college. If the greatest advantage is to be taken of the unfilled capacity in advanced courses, attention should be given to the establishment of junior colleges and community colleges in most states. They could not only prepare students for junior and senior years in larger institutions but could develop terminal courses for those who have neither the aptitude nor the industry to go on. The importance of skilled trades in our economic life also indicates the necessity for expanding vocational education both through trade schools and technological institutes, and in

²⁰ Cf. "By careful scheduling procedures, a better distribution of organized classes throughout the day, including the noon hour, late afternoon and possibly evening, and through related means, appreciably better utilization of facilities can be attained in the institutions of higher education in the State than has been true in the present and immediate past. Moreover, as a consequence of this increase, less space per student on the average will be required." *A Restudy of the Needs of California in Higher Education*, 1955, Ch. V, p. 75.

²¹ At Northwestern University, for example, in the College of Liberal Arts in the Fall Quarter, 1954-55, out of 377 courses offered, 154 had less than 10 students. The mode, the mean, and the median size class that year was between 10 and 19 students. In 1949, the previous high point in national registrations in higher education, out of 584 classes offered, 127 had less than 10 students; the average size class, by the above measures, had between 20 and 29 students.

the curricula of community colleges. The high cost of a college education makes these steps imperative if a higher ratio of the population is to be encouraged to go into higher education.

The expansion of beginning college courses for gifted students to be offered in the better high schools of the country is to be encouraged. This step will, in theory, decrease the time able students spend in college. If they remain the traditional four years their education will be enriched. Either way there is a distinct gain. However, teachers employed for these courses will decrease the supply available for use at other levels, so the gains from introducing good students to college subjects while in high school is not a clear but only a net gain, a somewhat small but worthy gain at that.

Something also needs to be done to equalize the competition between public and private institutions for students, facilities, and funds. A tightening up of standards by all weak institutions, public and private, is the first thing. No student should be able to make a choice of institutions on the basis of low requirements, the expectation of little or less work, or on the basis of Saturday afternoon amusement spectacles. Nearly all institutions need to put greater emphasis on education and the development of man's intellect. There are plenty of distractions everywhere to develop other facets of his life and personality. The public institutions need to stop some of the competition for students which arises from subsidies to out-of-state residents. Their excuse for not doing this is that educational transfers between states are a washout. But the taxpayers of one state owe no obligation to subsidize the students of another state. The national interests here involved should be carried by the Federal government, if at all. They should not be at the expense of private institutions nor allowed to undermine them. Out-of-state tuitions should be made to correspond more nearly with educational costs. Likewise, it is doubtful if the taxpayers of any state owe an obligation to provide a low cost loaf for triflers, or the proof that those who cannot pass low screening tests of ability will, in fact, fail in college. This is not an educational problem for public institutions but one of the facts of local politics they have to meet.

If you look at the methods followed by public institutions to get funds, they first approach legislatures for appropriations, then they resort to the only avenues of approach available to private institutions. They solicit alumni, develop campaigns for annual gifts, ask foundations and corporations for funds, exploit discoveries with patents,

royalties, leases, etc., and approach all persons of wealth who are favorably inclined toward higher education. They do everything they can think of to augment their appropriations. So does everybody else. There is nothing to complain of on this score, but the taxpayers in each state should be continuously reminded of the high cost of public higher education and that beyond paying their taxes they have no further obligations to this educational sector. My admonition to keep the high cost of public education before taxpayers is not designed primarily to keep the total down, so much as to keep these institutions reasonably sane and tolerably free from waste and extravagance. Some of them have the reputation of giving very little educational return on large appropriations. Similarly, taxpayers should never forget—and few of them do, Federal income taxes being what they are—that the total of taxes they pay determines the income and capital they have left to spend on everything else. Government and its institutions are first claimants; the rest of us can only share in what is left after taxes, fixed charges, and living costs are paid. The obligations of private industry, after tax payments, are to private institutions.

The state itself can help meet some of the needs of the situation by offering an increased number of scholarships good wherever the student wants to go. States can do this on a large scale far more cheaply than building an increased number of new institutions, and often more economically, too, than greatly expanding existing institutions. The capacity in private institutions can thus be utilized on a scale larger than would otherwise be possible. Students in need of financial aid will also be able to secure the education they want at the institutions of their choice. This may need to be done in some states to supplement other methods of meeting the problem. Commissions in several states have recommended this course of action.²²

V

Little has been said so far about staffing higher education to teach the increased students during the next fifteen years. If I had the money, I would hire that staff now—I want the best ones. And these are the ones who will be in shortest supply and for whom the bidding

²² For example, California committees in 1950 and again in 1954 recommended the establishment of "subsistence scholarships" available for use in either public or private institutions. *A Restudy of the Needs of California in Higher Education*, Ch. V, p. 41. A program calling for 3,000 scholarships was recommended in Illinois in 1945. *Report of the Commission to Survey Higher Educational Facilities in Illinois*, Jan. 1945, pp. 50-51.

will be fierce. Salary rates can be expected to climb in consequence of this and in recognition of the fact that the supply of instructors will be too short to go around. Teaching—always an attractive profession—will be better paid in the future. This will help increase the supply in the long run. Immediately, the competition for staff by institutions able to spend money for hiring will only increase the difficulties in other institutions. It is no solution of the total problem for one institution to solve its problem by creating vacancies in other institutions. This is what competition does. If we believe in competition we must accept its consequence; but unless the quality of teaching is to be reduced in consequence, something rather drastic must be done to increase the supply of competently trained college teachers.

In 1954, Raymond Walters's survey of attendance and teaching staffs in 846 institutions showed a total teaching staff of 163,536 for 1,895,280 students²³—a ratio of 1 teacher to about every 12 students. If this ratio is preserved there will have to be substantial increases in staff, on any basis of computation, to meet the requirements of a 1970 student body, unless the quality of education offered is to be drastically cut. A 31 per cent increase in students will require a teaching staff of over 352,000—more than double the present numbers. If the increase should be 40 per cent of the college-age group, over 454,000 teachers would be required, and if 50 per cent go to college the staff should rise to over 556,000.²⁴ If the lowest figure overstates the staff requirement by 40 per cent, over 47,000 college teachers at the very minimum will have to be located and trained; if the over-estimation is only 25 per cent, over 100,000 teachers will have to be attracted into the profession, no allowance being made for deaths or retirements. Nothing is to be gained by multiplying these statistics, nor by hedging all of the possible assumptions. The fact remains that the prospective increase in college teachers is not large enough,²⁵ and now is the time to do something about this problem.

²³ Walters, *loc. cit.*, pp. 177-187. Wolfe estimated the aggregate college staff at 200,000 in 1952-53: Wolfe, *America's Resources of Specialized Talent*. A Report of the Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training, New York: Harper & Bros., 1954, p. 124.

²⁴ Wolfe also estimated that, "to maintain the same student-faculty ratio will require 268,000 full-time faculty members in 1960, 350,000 in 1965 and 414,000 in 1970." This "will require an average of about 8,000 new faculty members each year until 1959 and about 12,000 each year from 1960 through 1969." *Ibid.*

²⁵ "All indications point to a shortage of well-qualified faculty members for the crowded campuses of 1960 and later." *Ibid.*, p. 126.

There are some who believe that it will be impossible to train the required number of teachers to meet future needs; that the traditional ratios between students and staff are old-fashioned; that methods of teaching are long out of date and that the deluge of students cannot but produce long-sought changes in educational methods. Now is the time, we are being told, to utilize new technical advances—television, movies, tape recorders, high fidelity phonographs, and the like—to put before students the few (or more) great teachers of our time. Now is the time to utilize and invent new methods of putting knowledge before a continuously increasing number of students. We are told that education needs to keep up with the T.V.'s, the deep freezers, and air conditioning. Mark Hopkins's log needs to be sawed into veneer for cabinets and Mark himself should long ago have been televised and recorded for continuous use on audio-visual aids. Students can certainly have placed before them many things they have not seen. Most experienced scientists, however, believe that movies, lecture demonstrations, and the like cannot replace the laboratory for teaching science. Of course, those who do not need to know, if they can be separated, may be shown. Similarly, the human mind cannot be carefully trained to analyze what is heard, seen, or done unless its efforts are measured, criticised, and perfected. Communication and criticism between student and teacher are part and parcel of the educational process. Man power is still required to teach and to train the human mind. Inevitably some of the processes will still require small classes. Mass education by the few acknowledged great teachers using a maze of technical tricks is no substitute for increasing the training of teachers now.

Trite words about making the teaching profession attractive to competent students will be wholly ineffective. Increases in teachers' salaries is not sufficient, especially since other wage rates and other professional incomes are even more attractive. Nevertheless, every improvement in teachers' salaries helps lessen the differential attractiveness of other employment. Over the years, teaching has appealed to good students as a way of life, not as a way to get rich. It is not necessary, therefore, that all financial inequalities be equalized to increase the supply of college professors, but the rates of compensation do have to be improved year by year to maintain that supply. Competition will assure some increase if nothing else does. But other positive action is required.

More attention than in the past must be given to gifted students, since an increasing number of them will inevitably turn to college teaching. But if the supply of teachers is to be increased, graduate school enrollments must be greatly augmented. The only way to do this is by offering a continuously increasing number of fellowships carrying substantially larger stipends. Most graduate students are now subsidized or their number would be smaller than it is. Here is the bottleneck in the supply of future teachers. Unless the number of Ph.D. candidates is greatly increased in the years ahead the already crucial shortages in teaching staffs at the top will not be corrected. More fellowships and more money for fellowships are needed; added physical facilities and more staff are not required to fill this need. States can help solve this problem by offering graduate fellowships good anywhere to applicants with the necessary qualifications. Private benefactors and corporations interested in their own supply of trained scientists and leaders should also invest increased resources in promoting graduate education. A fair proportion of those who enter graduate schools will, on the basis of past experience, remain to qualify as college teachers.

All of the graduate schools in the nation can now accommodate more students. The total cost of such a program would not be large. But unless this or something else is done, it makes little sense to concentrate on the expansion of physical facilities. Mind is still more important than matter! And co-operation between public and private education is vital if this task is to be accomplished. The governments and private enterprise have a job to do together.

The Negro College Faces Desegregation

J. NEWTON HILL

I

ON MAY 17, 1954, The Supreme Court of the United States made its historic decision declaring segregation in the public schools of the United States, unconstitutional. Immediately one observed two diametrically opposed reactions: a prayer of acceptance, on the part of the oppressed minorities who were sympathetic to the appellants, and consternation on the part of the defendants of the status quo in our southern states.

This division was perfectly logical and understandable. The appellants were joyous that another legal step had been taken in their painful climb toward the rights of full citizenship in America. Agonized and, in some cases, outraged citizens of the South, a diminishing group, began at once to gear themselves for a defense of their "sacred rights."

Many conflicting emotions were involved. Many issues reminiscent of States Rights, the Civil War, traditions, the rights of mankind, the integrity and equality of human beings—these questions came into new focus and America found herself called upon to believe, anew, in the meaning and strength of her Constitution, as interpreted by nine justices, or to repudiate that belief. In spite of dire predictions, the great majority of citizens have gone about the task of implementing the decision and of trying to make democracy truly live. The forthright educators have calmly and carefully started into the tremendous assignment of reappraising their resources, and of making all necessary provisions for integration. Baltimore, Washington, D.C., and St. Louis are typical of cities willing to face their problems and to solve them.

In most cases, integration was considered a two-way street. Traffic was to flow in both directions to and from the institutions which heretofore had catered to the races, separately. Such has not proved to be the picture. This is especially true where colleges and universities are concerned. Negro students have started a movement toward colleges formerly reserved for white students, but only the smallest fractional part of the white population has moved toward the formerly all-Negro college. Where a single educational institution hap-

pened to be located near a large urban center, as at Charleston, West Virginia, the influx of white students was surprisingly swift, and numerically large. But where there was no urban pressure, or financial urgency, despite the excellence of the Negro college there was no appreciable introduction of white students. One is therefore called upon to raise the serious question: What will be the procedure for the so-called Negro college in its effort to lose its racial badge as it faces desegregation? It may be assumed that no Negro college will insist on educating Negroes only. That would be segregation in reverse, and equally to be condemned.

It is probably wise to make it clear that by the term "Negro college" one refers to that type of institution which exists with a predominantly Negro student body. There are several Negro colleges in the United States which might well be considered "integrated" since they have always had some white students enrolled. But their clientele has been predominantly colored; we therefore classify them as Negro colleges. According to statistics from the United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1949, No. 6, there were 100 "Higher Negro Institutions," including junior colleges, in this country in 1948. The enrollment totalled approximately 100,000 students. Fifty per cent of these colleges were public and the rest private. A significant fact is observed in the proportion of accredited institutions among these colleges:

Fully accredited	60
Partly accredited	20
Not accredited	40
Full time faculty	5,851
Value of property	\$119,857,859

These statistics make it reasonably clear that changes due to desegregation are bound to have considerable effect on the Negro college. The results may be far-reaching; they could be alarming for those who propose no change.

One of the obvious effects of desegregation should be that of standardizing the quality of work in all schools. Particularly should this be true of Negro institutions devoted to the higher education of youth in America. In other words, the time approaches when a non-accredited institution can have very little excuse for existence. What will these partly- and nonaccredited institutions do? They will either improve to the point of justifying accreditation or they will close in

the face of stronger and better state or private nonsegregated schools which will be ready to take their places.

But this will not save the accredited Negro college. It may feel that the march of the human mind is slow, that the South is very arbitrary about segregation, and that there is no need of hurrying. This suggests a dangerous *laissez-faire* attitude, and should not be tolerated. If it exists it is prompted either by fears for one's economic well-being, by foolish pride, or by ignorance. In a way this thinking is understandable but it is also despicable. The accredited Negro college has a specific and difficult project already laid out. It must help usher in desegregation by making its faculty and its student body interracial; it must also raise the standards of admission to such a point as will permit it to compete on a par with any accredited institution in its region, and it must do so without delay. If remedial work is necessary, it should be adopted as a temporary noncredit expedient.

This raises a second very important question regarding academic standards in the Negro college: should there be any deviation from national standards for students drawn from underprivileged backgrounds? At one time the humanitarian point of view of the missionary was a major motivating factor in the founding and operations of the Negro college. Thousands of youths wanted and needed higher education. Yet there were no training centers to which they could go. Then, too, if the Negro student had an adequate preparatory school background he frequently lacked the funds necessary for the expensive tuition at better northern universities. Missionaries and thoughtful educators, willing to pioneer in a cause, went to the thickly populated states and founded schools for the eager Negro students. The objective was commendable, and sometimes it was noteworthy. At commencement exercises one can still catch hortatory declamations dedicated to these pioneering founders. Somehow, the most unsuspecting students managed to be "fed on Latin and weaned on Greek." They developed a love for the classics, they took on a Biblical style of rhetoric, and some of them astounded the nation with their intelligence and oratorical prowess. All this was achieved notwithstanding the fact that some of them came from poverty-stricken homes, from culturally limited backgrounds. They could not go to public libraries, to theaters, or to art galleries. They had no opportunity for learning, except from texts. The handling of many books, the significance of the drama of the ancients, the art of

a nation, the use of scientific apparatus, these things were not in their environment. The evils and difficulties which slavery and reconstruction had placed upon them appeared like a massive incubus. Still they went to these early colleges and learned out of a sheer thirst for knowledge. They had heard of a Wheatley, a Douglass, or a Dunbar and they believed that they, too, could learn. There is probably no greater pathos in American education than in the struggles of early black citizens to get an education.

The years have not reduced these difficulties with much speed. Segregation has seen to that. Academic casualties among Negro students who seemed to qualify for admission to college, frequently have been traced to background deficiencies not always discernible in high school records. It has taken sharp competition at the college level—competition purely objective and therefore impersonal, quadrupled in its intensity because there were few compensating social factors to serve as a relief or a release—it has taken this intensified competition, especially in our best American colleges, to break the nerves of otherwise competent Negro students.

The Negro college has tried to live up to admissions standards by using objective admission tests. Sometimes the students could not present scores from the regular College Entrance Board Examinations. And even if they could—as Dr. Allison Davis of the University of Chicago has pointed out—the test scores were not reliable in predicting the potential of many Negro students. The author has known many cases of Negro students with poor admission test scores who, under careful and sympathetic instruction made tremendous improvement in college and then went on to graduate school at Yale, Chicago, Harvard, and Columbia, where they took their doctorates with distinction.

With desegregation upon us, we must move instantly to continue raising standards so that neither apologies nor explanations nor specially devised tests need be offered for entering college freshmen. Educationally, we can admit finally of only one standard of competence, and that must be commonly accepted excellence as recognized nationally. That standard the better Negro colleges accept and move toward. Desegregation will now quicken the pace for the stronger colleges and it will also quicken the death of the weaker institutions, which, no matter how greatly it may be lamented by many, will be inevitable as education moves forward.

II

Specifically, what does desegregation mean to the Negro college? It may be profitable to itemize the assets and liabilities before we comment further on them. Desegregation will mean:

1. The loss of the best Negro students to the outstanding American colleges.
2. The continued loss of outstanding Negro athletes to the larger, though not necessarily to better American colleges. (It is significant to observe that outstanding Negro athletes have little or no difficulty meeting admissions requirements to many so-called "white" colleges.)
3. The loss of distinguished Negro professors to outstanding colleges. (Due partly to larger salaries and partly to the anticipated tidal wave of students.)
4. The loss of employment for some Negro teachers through the closing of their schools. (This may be unavoidable in instances where inadequate preparation, lack of professional growth, and similar factors may obviously militate against absorption.)
5. The de-emphasizing of social life, particularly in Negro fraternities and sororities in favor of an intensive drive for real scholarship.
6. The acquisition of decent grounds and buildings for those schools worth maintaining. Good living is accepted as an integral part of the learning process in college.
7. The abolishing of separate Negro language, science, or other professional organizations which frequently tend to preserve a double standard of professional competence.
8. The closing of some colleges which cannot keep to the highest standards required by regional rating associations. (The opprobrious "Class B" rating would then not be necessary.)

There can be little save a heartening sign of progress in any of the eight points listed above. Loss should be interpreted as a greater gain for the cause of education. It is not expected that these things will happen overnight. But it is hoped that no Negro college would purposely delay progress. If the Supreme Court decision meant anything at all, it meant that an obligation was being placed on all colleges to hasten the ushering-in of an era of real understanding. The resultant enlightened citizenry will bring about a stronger democracy.

There is more at stake, however, in this vital transition than seems apparent. If it were a simple matter of shifting student-populations or of closing a few colleges then the metamorphosis would be quite

mechanical indeed. But I have never viewed important educational changes that way. There are traditions as old as the American people, family traits as intrenched as caverns of the West, scars still recognized and regarded by some as Civil War wounds. These are evidences of tempers and attitudes which must be met honestly and understandingly if education is to be a leavening process. Politicians are even emphasizing a noun "interposition" as symbolic of a new statesmanship for the South.

History records spastic actions on the part of some peoples whenever a change in what they considered their inherent rights and privileges was demanded. It is understandable, too, that narrowed horizons frequently make it impossible for some individuals to get a world view. This is true in educational as well as other fields. History, through two world wars and through continued challenge on the part of a great Asiatic power, is making it clear that America can remain strong only through the intelligence, the will, and the belief of her people in the rightness of democracy. We have managed to live miraculously, so far, with a large segment of the people selfishly interpreting the democratic idea. It has been in matters of government very much as Christianity has been to some church-members—a theory to be handled as they wished. We are facing an acid test today and the weaknesses of yesteryear cannot be permanently endured except to our own destruction. Nullification, secession, interposition—these are all terms which smack horribly of un-Americanism. How the Communists must rejoice whenever they hear them!

Similarly, one must not grow intolerant, even when a citizen, writing in a popular monthly magazine, defends the public opinion of the South and declares: "It exists, and can be demonstrated." So, too, I should say, does cancer exist and so, too, can it be demonstrated. It has a way of metastasizing in the human body. But that is not a justification. Medical science is still trying to eradicate it. Neither should one glow with anger when the same opponent of desegregation insists that: "White Southerners of good will . . . favor uplift of the Negro" or "the Southerner believes that as a practical matter, he is better equipped by experience to cope with race problems" or "the differences are too great at present, to encourage white parents to permit their children to mingle freely in school." All of these opinions have been voiced before, and I should not repeat them here except to say that had the author of these quotations

attended even the most humble of the Negro colleges in the South, he would have been a better educated man. For he would have learned one basic truth, a truth which is constantly stressed in every Negro college I have known: that all men are equal, and that there is—speaking racially—no pure anything. Any one capable of tracing his ancestry back far enough, would find himself among Cro-Magnons, Slavs, Mongols, Africans, Celts, Saxons, and Teutons. Every Negro college teaches its students this elementary truth about anthropology. Some Negro students know it before they enter college.

It is not improbable, then, as one views the dilemma of the Negro college, that whether it decides to reorganize as an interracial institution or continue the present pattern, it still has time to plot its course. But it must do it well. While it contemplates survival or death it may be advantageous to proclaim its contributions to the philosophy of education in America.

It has taught America that a determined people cannot be kept in ignorance against their will. It has made it clear that a vicious pattern of prejudice, ignorantly assumed by some to be as old as civilization, is, after all, only one hundred years old, and will be dead in another one hundred years—interpositionists notwithstanding. It has helped channel much art of rare value into the stream of American culture. It has demonstrated, when taken at its best, that deeper significance of education found not in a quality of the academic mind, but in a quality of human character—something never inalienable from real education, in any classroom—qualities which Einstein identified as "forces which are capable of cultivating the Good, the True, and the Beautiful in Humanity itself." Philosophically speaking, this is a real contribution. There is no type of test or measurement which ferrets it out, but it does come forward as one of the greatest intangibles in education. It may be capable of bringing the world to its senses, and if it does so the march of civilization will be quickened.

Humanities Research as Creation*

HOWARD MUMFORD JONES

I VENTURE to intrude upon your time in answer to a challenge in the original address by the General Chairman of the meeting, my good friend, John Burchard, and I would like to submit certain observations of my own. In any gathering of this sort, of course, there develops a quality of vocabulary that has all the vitality of error and all the tediousness of an old friend, and I would like, if I might, to call attention to what seems to me some empty words and some confusion of phrasing, and to return for a few minutes to what I believe to be the general problem before this conference on Liberal Education, Industry, and the Quest for Quality.

One word is the word "broad." In my observations that which is broad is also flat. And that which is flat is often thin. And I have observed, or think I have observed, that a good many bits of education intended to be broad, are in themselves thin, and produce "flat" products. (In view of Professor Richard Adams'¹ earlier protest, I beg your pardon for using this vulgar word.) I would suggest that we might get farther on this question if we didn't fall into the constant confusion between that education which is broad, and that education which is broadening. It is the broadening kind of education—not the broad education—that is desired.

Three other phrases have constantly appeared—*liberal education*, *liberal arts* and the *humanities*. Sometimes they have been used interchangeably, and again they have been used with some slight sense of difference among them. I suggest, at any rate, that certainly the humanities are a part of liberal education, and that the liberal arts are not necessarily synonymous with the *humanities*; nor is *liberal education* synonymous with the *humanities*.

When I have heard so many times that one of the primary ways of securing a broad education is to teach technologically minded students to write, I submit that the teaching of the rudiments of writing is not the same thing as inculcating a broadening outlook; and that

* A talk given at the Seventh National Conference of the College English Association Institute, Schenectady, New York.

¹ Professor Adams had protested against reference to college graduates as "products."

to reduce the work of English Departments to the matter of composition is grossly to underestimate the potentialities of that particular variety of the humanities. What we want constantly is dynamic teaching and what we want constantly are effective and curious minds.

I submit that teaching cannot continue at the basis, let us say, of elementary composition without being in the end something that turns out teachers who are also not merely elementary, they are elementists. Teaching—to be successful at all—must be constantly refreshed by a current of fresh ideas, and particularly is this true in the humanities. This refreshment must come either from the revaluation of old materials or the discovery of new materials.

Now this is commonplace in all the elementary courses except the courses in the humanities. Take, for examples, physics. Here the most elementary course is supposed to give some glimpse into what has been going on lately in physics; and the introductory course in economics is supposed to bring you up to date in the world of economics. Indeed, in science and in social science, it is true, is it not, that this current of fresh ideas comes constantly from the research activities of the people in the field—and in these fields this notion of research activity is accepted as a matter of course.

This is precisely, it seems to me, what raises the problem before the Conference. We train so many technologists for so many research activities. The argument follows that these people are narrowly trained and the narrowness of their training is to be compensated by the humanists. The curious thing is the implicit inference that therefore the humanist must not do any research work at all. Now this, I submit, is a very dangerous assumption, and a very dangerous matter in our culture.

Sometimes I feel that *scholarship* has become an obsolescent word, and that "research in the humanities" is one of those phrases that seem somehow slightly obscene. How are we to secure this constant current of bright and original ideas in the humanities except in the same way that we secure a constant current of fresh ideas in the sciences and in the social sciences? And where or what is it we are to explore? Well, primarily, it seems to me our duty is the exploration and the revaluation of the past. It is the exploration and revaluation of what we call civilization, something to which you cannot possibly apply statistical analyses.

I submit likewise, with all deference to John Burchard, that to say

with him, that the humanities are all right—getting along pretty well because there is such an interest today in the contemporary creating of works of art—is to deal with only one part of the problem. Mr. Burchard also said, and I know he will forgive me for questioning him on this point, that there is nothing wrong with the humanities that a little money will not cure.

Well, three years ago, statisticians in the Social Science Research Council, upon investigation, discovered that the average amount of research money paid out in this country to support somebody in the exact sciences was \$1800 per year, in the social sciences \$600 per year, in the humanities \$130 per year. They made another investigation to discover what amount of research money is paid out in the \$5000 bracket. We discovered that we are subsidizing research by scientists in this country per year at a \$5000 level or better, at the rate of 14 or 15 times the amount of subsidy we are giving research in the humanities.

I suggest that if, in this society, you put fourteen and fifteen times the amount of money into research work in the exact sciences, and six or seven times as much money into social sciences as you put into the humanities, the inference to young minds is irresistible that your society values these various areas of learning in something like the proportion of fifteen or six to one. If you pay out \$15 for the creative work in the sciences as against \$1.00 for creative work in scholarship in the humanities, you are not going to get creative scholarship in any such proportion as this society deserves. Your culture, your education, your whole national philosophy is at this point badly out of balance; and as the years go by, it must by the very law of mathematics grow more and more out of balance.

Until industry, until government, until the great foundations are prepared to pay proportionately more for the continuation and the increase of creative scholarship in the humanities than they are now paying, you will not attract a sufficient number of brilliant young minds into the humanities and you will get the B and B+ minds inevitably, and these same minds will get into the classrooms, and you will not get in the classroom in this same way, ladies and gentlemen, the tingling excitement of intellectual discovery that you get in the sciences and the social sciences.

I also suggest that, as a nation, with the exception of one or two ideas, we have been living, in what we customarily call the humani-

ties, for one hundred and fifty years on the accumulated intellectual capital of Europe. As a matter of fact, in this country, we have added very little to the intellectual capital of Europe although we pride ourselves upon our capacity to conduct admirable investigations.

Now I want to return, if I may, to that brilliant introductory speech on *Law, Freedom, and Liberal Education*, by Mr. Sol Linowitz² at our opening luncheon yesterday. It is the same kind of thing to which Mr. Robert Blakely³ referred, and to which some others have referred. It is the desperate need of a philosophical defense of the democratic system. And I say a desperate need of a philosophical defense of the democratic system, for these reasons. The democratic system which with us began on a series of the 18th century postulates has either been altered, questioned, or perhaps indeed destroyed in the last 150 years. Unless we can find creative humanists—by which I mean philosophers, metaphysicians, teachers of the arts, teachers of the languages, teachers of the great traditions of music and of the fine arts—unless we can get people who will give us something more than a thin, commonplace defense of the very upon which this Republic stands, unless we can bring to the Twentieth Century man in 1955 an appropriate philosophical defense of the very culture in which we live, this culture will inevitably move over to that of Mr. Orwell's 1984 as if we had no such defense at all.

I suggest that teaching is a great and glorious art, but that the opposition which is sometimes set up between the scholar and the teacher—between doing research in the humanities and appreciating fine arts—is for the most part a false opposition, and one which I—in my place—thoroughly deplore.

² COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY, 31:1, Oct. 1955, 31-39.

³ Manager, Central Regional Office, Fund for Adult Education, who spoke on "Liberal Education, the Quest for Quality, and the Creative Maverick."

The Land Grant Colleges Since 1900

F. D. FARRELL

ONE WHO enrolled at a land grant college in September, 1900 and who has never been out of contact with land grant colleges since that time cannot but be impressed by the changes in these institutions during the past fifty-five years. The major change is the transformation of these colleges from small, weak, struggling, widely unpopular institutions to large, influential state and national scientific and educational agencies enjoying widespread public acceptance.

A COMPREHENSIVE CHARTER

The name land grant college derives from an Act of Congress approved by President Lincoln July 2, 1862, and generally known as the Morrill Act. The author, Senator Justin S. Morrill of Vermont, was the son of a New England blacksmith. The act provides for each state a grant of land, 30,000 acres for each Senator and Representative from that state. The land was to be sold, the receipts set aside and invested as an endowment, and the income from the endowment used in the support in each state of at least one college "where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, in such manner as the legislatures of the states may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life."

The long and involved statement is the charter of the land grant college. It is a comprehensive charter. There are few, if any subjects that are not in some way "related to agriculture and the mechanic arts." The expression "the several pursuits and professions in life" covers a good deal of territory.

The idea expressed in the charter—the land grant college idea—essentially was not new. More than 500 years B. C., in his school at Crotona, Pythagoras provided for the coeds a "liberal and practical education." Those Pythagorean women studied not only literature and philosophy but also "maternal and domestic arts." In the 16th century François Rabelais recommended the study of nature as well as books and the use in men's daily occupations of the knowledge so

gained. In 1644 John Milton advocated the study of classical literature and agriculture, and defined a generous education as "that which fits a man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war." The idea is an old one but its widespread application began with the passage of the Morrill Act of July 2, 1862.

SMALL AND SIMPLE BEGINNINGS

In 1900 most of the land grant colleges, particularly those that were not also state universities, were small and simple. The present writer's first college assignment slip was made out by the president of the college, as were the assignment slips of other new students. The college's total enrollment was not more than 400, or one-tenth what it is now. Shortly before that time Eugene Davenport answered with his own hand "all the letters that came to the agricultural department of Michigan Agricultural College, the oldest and then the largest (land grant college) in the United States."

The land grant colleges in 1900 typically were small, financially poor, and faced with numerous forms of adversity. But they had the pioneer spirit. Led by a number of able and devoted men and women, their experience exemplifies Shakespeare's Duke's dictum, "Sweet are the uses of adversity." To such land grant college pioneers as Liberty Hyde Bailey at Cornell, W. J. Kerr at Utah and Oregon, Miss Abby Marlatt and S. M. Babcock at Wisconsin, Miss Isabel Bevier and Eugene Davenport at Illinois, T. F. Hunt at Illinois, Pennsylvania, Cornell, and California, and W. O. Thompson at Ohio—to name only a few—adversity was a challenge and a stimulus.

ACADEMIC SNOBBERY

One important form of adversity that persistently affected the land grant colleges may be described as academic snobbery. Perhaps most human beings are in some degree snobs. From the time of the expulsion of Adam and Eve from the garden of Eden, when manual labor was regarded as a curse, to the 20th Century, when land grant colleges frequently were called cow colleges, snobbery has been with us. Land grant colleges have suffered from it, both extramurally and intramurally. And, like all snobbery it "works both ways." A student or professor of, say, classical literature can be no more contemptuous of, say, thermodynamics than a student or professor of thermody-

namics can be of classical literature. Snobbery often is associated with commendable professional pride, as it was when an excellent street sweeper said of a colleague, "Dugan's all right for plain sweeping but he's no good among the telephone poles."

Frequently academic snobbery has resulted in intense antagonism, both extramurally and intramurally. Often it has been a factor for antagonism between the land grant college and the state university of the same state, where the two are separate, as they are in almost half the states; or between the college's school of engineering or school of agriculture on the one hand and school of arts and sciences on the other. One has gained the impression in recent years that both the snobbery and the antagonism seem now to be diminishing. Observations at the land grant colleges of 35 states, some of them many times, during the past forty years, at 23 of them during the past seven years, support this impression.

The task of providing both liberal and practical education, and particularly that of inducing the individual student to pursue both, are among the difficulties long faced, and to some extent still faced, by the land grant college. A boy who is intensely interested in plant breeding, electronics, aeronautics, or animal nutrition, may feel no interest in language, literature, or history. But there seems now to be among students a growing appreciation of the importance of balancing the technical with the liberal.

THREE MAJOR CATEGORIES

Since 1900, the work of the land grant colleges has developed into three major categories: resident instruction, research, and extension. The three are interdependent and mutually supplementary. The Morrill Act of 1862 made no explicit mention of research or extension. Both may be implicit in the Act, even though the author may not have known it. The colleges soon learned that if they were to teach effectively they must have dependable subject matter, much of which could be obtained only by research. The Hatch Act of 1887 provided for an annual Federal allotment of \$15,000 to each state for the support of an agricultural experiment station. This stimulated the states to develop research as the Morrill Act had stimulated them to develop resident instruction. All land grant colleges have agricultural experiment stations and many also have engineering experiment stations. Every year now research results obtained by experiment

stations are worth, in dollars and cents, many times the cost of operating the stations. An agricultural experiment station develops a preventive of some disease of crop plants or of farm animals and so enables farmers to save a hundred million dollars a year. An engineering experiment station develops a new method of testing or improving concrete construction and so helps to save millions of dollars annually in highway construction and maintenance.

Soon after the founding of the early land grant colleges, these institutions began to invite farm men and women to come to the campus for what were called farmers' institutes. Kansas, for example, began the practice in 1868. Then the colleges began to "take the college to the people" by providing lectures and demonstrations at various points in the respective states. Thus extension work in agriculture, home economics, rural engineering, and 4-H club activities began to evolve. The movement was greatly stimulated by the passage by Congress of the Smith-Lever Act of 1914. That act inaugurated the co-operative agricultural extension program which has become world famous for its influence and usefulness. The program provides instruction and stimulus directly to millions of rural men, women, and children.

INCREASED SPECIALIZATION

Another major development since 1900 is a marked increase of specialization not only in agriculture, engineering, and home economics, but in such basic subjects as chemistry, botany, and zoology. Fifty years ago at a land grant college there would be a professor of agriculture. Not so now. Instead there is a dean of agriculture with a large staff of specialists in soils, crops, animal husbandry, agricultural economics, poultry genetics, animal nutrition, and so on. Where there was one professor of civil engineering, there is now a dean of engineering and a large staff of specialists in applied mechanics, chemical engineering, machine design, electrical engineering, mining engineering, nuclear engineering, and so on. In the field of chemistry there are such specialists as biochemists, physical chemists, fertilizer chemists. All other fields represented in a land grant college are correspondingly specialized.

This is true of what the Act of 1862 called military tactics. From the beginning, military training for able-bodied male students has been a part of the land grant college curriculum. In 46 states two years

of basic military training are required. In two states it is optional. In most land grant colleges a two-year advanced course is optional but extensively elected by prospective reserve officers, quotas often being "oversubscribed."

In 1900 the training was much simpler than it now is but it had real value even then as a part of preparation for civilian life as well as for military service. Thousands of army officers in World Wars I and II received their training at land grant colleges. In 1900 most of the training was for infantry and was supervised by a U. S. Army lieutenant, or at most a captain. Now the Reserve Officers Training Corps at the land grant colleges includes training for such specialized services as infantry, coast artillery, field artillery, veterinary corps, signal corps, air force, navy. And at each college the training is supervised by one or more colonels and a staff of majors, captains, and lieutenants, or by naval officers of corresponding rank.

INCREASED PUBLIC ACCEPTANCE

Increased public acceptance of the land grant colleges since 1900 is one of the major changes. There was considerable public acceptance from the beginning. For example, 37 states accepted the terms of the Morrill Act within eight years after its passage and agreed to "fulfill the conditions for establishing the new type of college." Thousands of Americans agreed with a statement remembered from the 90's by Eugene Davenport: "For of what good is it when a man can say 'I am hungry' in six or seven languages but cannot earn his own bread and butter?" But thousands of others did not agree.

Many farmers contemptuously stigmatized the colleges' agricultural teaching as "book farming." Frequently these farmers were right. Many liberal arts college officers and faculty members looked down their noses at all technological education.

A few data, mostly for the year 1953-54, reported by the U. S. Office of Education, indicate something of the dimensions of the land grant college movement in the 1950's, and suggest something of the present extent of public acceptance.

In the land grant colleges of the 48 states, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, there were 376,000 resident students of college grade. The total included 47,000 graduate students. Total college grade enrollment ranged from 373 in Alaska to 33,000 in California, and averaged about 7,200.

Undergraduate enrollment included 63,000 in engineering, 39,000

in business, 28,000 in education, 26,000 in agriculture, 14,000 in home economics, 3,500 in architecture, 3,200 in veterinary medicine, 3,000 in forestry, and 2,700 in journalism. Graduate enrollment included 9,000 in education, 6,000 in engineering, 5,000 in agriculture, 1,900 in business, 700 in home economics, and smaller numbers in each of several other fields.

Degrees were granted to 79,000 persons of whom 30 per cent were women. More than 20 per cent of the degrees granted were advanced degrees. This suggests that the land grant colleges may in fact be universities. But the late W. O. Thompson of Ohio State once declared, "They are fortunate in being called colleges, for that saves them from endless argument about what a university is."

Enrollment in noncollegiate resident instruction, in extension classes, many of which were of college grade, or in correspondence study was well beyond 100,000.

Attendance for special noncollegiate short course instruction on campus amounted to many thousands. Persons given instruction by the agricultural extension service were numbered in millions.

There were 73,000 faculty members, of whom 20 per cent were women.

Financial income for the year amounted to \$748 million and came from the following sources in the percentages indicated: state governments, 50.2; Federal government, 25.3; tuition and student fees, 9.5; and all other sources, 15. "Other sources" include the 1862 land grant endowments, income from which was about \$2 million, or about 0.27 per cent of total income. The 25 per cent contribution by taxpayers through the Federal government is one indication that land grant colleges are national, as well as state, institutions.

Expenditures were for the following purposes in the percentages shown: resident instruction and department research (research outside that of the experiment stations), 33.4; organized research, 27.8; extension and other public services, 12.5; physical plant, 9.2; administration and general expense, 7.5; libraries, 2.4; and all others, 7.2.

Total value of physical plant exceeded \$2 billion, ranging from \$4 million in Alaska to \$273 million in California, and averaging \$39 million.

PECULIARLY AMERICAN

From the beginning the land grant colleges have been peculiarly American. They are open to all qualified comers, they are democratic,

and they are actively concerned with the well-being of the millions of citizens who work for a livelihood. Their success has been so marked and their acceptance by the public so widespread that numerous other countries on all the continents have invited them to send delegations to explain the land grant college idea and how it operates.

Their success has brought great responsibilities and difficult problems. The colleges are faced with the prospect of vast increases in enrollment. They are pressed increasingly to expand their research programs. They are obliged to ask for large increases in financial support. Frequently they find it less difficult to obtain increased financial support than to find and hold sufficient qualified personnel in research and instruction.

But they are undismayed now, as the founders of the land grant college movement were. The prevailing spirit among the land grant colleges was well described by President L. W. Jones of Rutgers, the land grant college of New Jersey, in his presidential address at the annual convention of the Association of Land Grant Colleges and Universities on November 15, 1955:

"We accept our new responsibilities in the same spirit which inspired our founders. The educational movement of which we are a part has taken hold, and is still growing strongly, both because it is a realistic adjustment to the needs of an advancing technological civilization, and because it expresses our national idealism."

The Past, Present, and Future of Admission Requirements

FRANK H. BOWLES

I

ONE WAY of beginning discussion of entrance requirements and, it seems to me, the easiest way, is to state some principles that seem broadly applicable. The two that I have worked out are not necessarily eternal verities, but they at least have the merit of setting up the thesis for this paper. They are:

First: Entrance requirements are a product of the relationship between secondary education and higher education. This is not as much of a truism as it sounds. Most secondary schools and most colleges operate under the delusion that entrance requirements are established by colleges. However, I do not believe that this is supported by facts except in the technical sense that entrance requirements are voted by college faculties and printed in college catalogues.

Actually, the substance, or quantitative aspect, of entrance requirements reflects the dominant curriculum in secondary education. The evidence, in terms of history, and indeed in terms of present entrance requirements, is clear on this point. The point is valid even when there is a difference in subject matter and in emphasis between the secondary curriculum and the college curriculum. Changes in the dominant secondary curriculum, which in turn affect entrance requirements, are not a product of relationships with colleges. The proof of this lies in the fact that the colleges still yearn nostalgically for the sixteen-unit curriculum with prescribed English, history, modern language, mathematics, and science, when in fact this curriculum has disappeared or is disappearing in the rose-scented past, while the dominant curriculum today, to which entrance requirements are in fact keyed, is very different indeed.

Second: The enforcement, or qualitative aspect, of entrance requirements is determined by higher education in response to applicant supply and demand and with little or no reference to the attitudes and objectives of secondary education. The formal statement of entrance requirements tends to correspond with what the students may be expected to offer. But, once applicants are on hand, the

admission process tends to be determined by the pressure of numbers. When pressures are heavy, enforcement standards are high; when they are light, standards are low. An institution may, without changing entrance requirements, go from high to low standards and back again within ten years. Heavy applicant pressures tend to bring in the use of criteria that are not stated in the entrance requirements—such as financial, geographical, athletic, and even psychoanalytical.

II

Any discussion of entrance requirements in the past is best divided into two periods—1630-1870, and 1870-1940. The starting point for the earlier period has obviously been fixed in terms of the foundation of Harvard College. Actually, the date should probably be fixed at 1642, when the first recorded entrance requirements were published. The concluding date for the early period could be fixed with reasonable support for any time between the outbreak of the War Between the States, which certainly marked the close of a social era in the United States, and 1900, a date made momentous by the foundation of the College Entrance Examination Board. I have chosen the date 1870, since that was when entrance requirements began their slow movement away from the classical tradition and toward their present pattern.

The period 1630-1870 has often been described as the formative period in American higher education. I suggest that this is true only in the sense that most of our major independent institutions were founded during that period. In all other aspects this period is better described as the preformative, by which I mean that relatively little of what happened in higher education during that period can be traced in the institutions of today save by carrying the tracing through an intermediate period when our institutions actually began to assume their present form.

The difference between higher education prior to 1870 and as it exists today can perhaps be set forth most clearly merely by describing college preparation, entrance requirements, and college curricula during that period.

College preparation during the seventeenth century was largely on an individual instruction basis, with the minister usually responsible for the instruction. The reason for this is clear enough—the principal task of the colleges was the education of the ministry. This meant

that the college curriculum followed the pattern of clerical education, established long since in England, perpetuated and defended in Cambridge University, which was the forebear of Harvard, and in Emanuel College which was, more than any other Cambridge college, the model on which Harvard was founded. This curriculum covered Greek, Latin, Hebrew, Syriac, Old and New Testament, Lectures upon Logic, Physics, History, Botany, Arithmetic, Geometry, Rhetoric, and Astronomy, and set aside considerable time for Disputations and Declamations. So far as can be determined, only the last two are still maintained at Harvard in approximately their colonial form. Inasmuch as all of this except the Greek, Hebrew, and Syriac was supposed to be carried on in Latin and all converse within college walls was likewise expected to be in Latin, it is not surprising that the first published entrance requirements for Harvard in 1642 were written in Latin, with an appended translation stating that "When any Scholar is able to read Tully or such like classical Latin Author extempore and make and speake true Latin in verse and prose sue Marte, and decline perfectly the pardigms of nounes and verbes in ye Greeke tongue, then may hee bee admitted in ye College, nor shall any claime admission before such qualifications."

This curriculum and the entrance requirements which stemmed from it were taken over by Yale when that "true school of the prophets" was founded in 1701 in order, as Thayer, in his historical sketch of Harvard University, puts it, "that the brimstone doctrines of Calvinism should not be quenched by the waters of liberalism." The same curriculum and the same requirements appeared in other colonial colleges as they were in the course of events established lest the zealous colonists "leave an illiterate ministry to the Churches."

The first specific admission statements, or, in modern parlance, definitions of requirements, appeared in the Laws and Orders of the College of New York, better known as King's College, published in 1755, the year after the founding of that institution. These read:

None shall be admitted (unless by a particular Act of the Governors) but such as can read the first three of Tully's Select Orations, and the Three first books of Virgil's Aeneid into English and the Ten first Chapters of St. John's Gospel in Greek, into Latin, and such as are well-versed in all the rules of Clark's introduction so as to make true Grammatical Latin and are expert in Arithmetic so far as the Rule of Reduction.

This, be it noted, is not only the first specific statement, but it is also the first mention of Arithmetic as an entrance requirement. Furthermore, as connoisseurs of entrance statements will note, it contains the first known ancestor of the escape clause, that revered and sonorous phrase of the present day which begins "for reasons of weight, and under exceptional circumstances. . . ."

Shortly after the foundation of King's College, but perhaps not directly attributable to it, the decline of learning in the land was tacitly admitted by the general elimination of the requirement for ability in spoken Latin. Curiously enough, this diminution of entrance requirements was balanced by an increase in the Greek requirements.

The Revolution and the following years of uncertainty had, so far as can be determined from the histories, no effect upon the colleges except to close some of them for a few years. At any rate, as late as 1810, they were still operating on essentially the same curriculum and entrance requirements as were established for Harvard 180 years before. However, the situation had changed on the preparatory or secondary education level. There, a new pattern of education had come into existence with the formation of academies. In contrast to the grammar schools, which were concerned primarily with language preparation, the academies strove for a balance in emphasis as between the classics and the new subjects of science, geography, mathematics, history, and English. The number of these academies was not, of course, large—there were apparently around twenty in Massachusetts in 1880, and about the same number in New York State, but there were at least ten times as many academies as there were colleges, and eventually numbers began to tell. At any rate, beginning about 1810 and continuing through the 40's and 50's, college entrance requirements began to change with the introduction of geography, English grammar, ancient history, geometry, and physical geography—in other words, the subjects the academies were teaching.

Thus, on the eve of the War Between the States, we find that the relationship between schools and colleges referred to in the opening paragraph had operated in the expected manner to change entrance requirements by bringing in the newer subjects that had been introduced by the academies. However, the change was only skin deep, for the core of secondary education remained the classics, the core of the admission requirements remained the classics, and the classics were the core of the college programs.

The year 1860 was actually the last year of existence for the colonial college idea. This idea had lived untouched through the Revolution, through the panics, booms, and depressions of the social revolution that we call the Age of Jackson, but it could not stand against the gathering technological revolution, which, in addition to being the proximate cause of the War Between the States, was to be the direct cause of changes which would alter permanently our educational structure and system.

It was, in fact, high time for change. In the middle of the 19th century, Massachusetts withdrew financial subsidies to Harvard when a committee of the legislature reported, "The college fails to answer the just expectations of the people of the State because its organization and instruction are a quarter of a century out of date." At about the same time, the president of Brown lamented, "Our colleges are not filled because we do not furnish the education desired by the people. . . . We have produced an article for which the demand is diminishing. We sell it at less than cost, and the deficiency is made up by charity. We give it away, and still the demand diminishes."

The truth was that higher education in 1870 was in a bad way without quite knowing why. The older colleges had become citadels of conservatism and were catering to a small but not necessarily select clientele. Newer colleges had been founded by various evangelical groups literally by the hundreds to meet demands for an educated clergy, and were collapsing almost as rapidly as they were founded. Actually, what had happened was that the needs for education in America were not being met by the institutions available on either the secondary or the higher level. Under the circumstances, something had to change.

The change, which came about during the period 1870-1900, was effective simultaneously on two levels. The colleges introduced new entrance requirements and programs. At the same time, an entirely new form of secondary education came into its own in the form of the public high school.

However, the process of change was grudgingly slow, both for entrance requirements and degree requirements. The first step in the change was the rise of the public high school as the chief instrument of secondary education. Beginning in 1821 as the "people's college," the idea spread rapidly. At the outset, the high schools were not conceived of as college preparatory institutions, but were planned to provide terminal programs. However, as the idea of tax-supported educa-

tion spread, the responsibilities of the schools grew and the college preparatory subjects were added.

Latent opposition to free public education above the common school level was a deterrent to growth of high schools until the great legal hurdle was passed in 1874 when the Kalamazoo case held that it was within the right of the state "to furnish a liberal education to the youth of the state in schools brought within the reach of all classes." Thereafter, lingering questions were swept away, and by 1890 there were 2,500 high schools with an enrollment just above 200,000.

The development of public high schools is of obvious importance in the history of entrance requirements because these schools were the instrument by which the entrance requirements could be met. It is not even remotely possible that a system of private schools or even a system of tax-subsidized private schools could have supported the development of American higher education after 1870. In other words, if it had not been for the public schools, there would not have been the development of higher education that actually took place. But the development, indeed the existence, of public high schools is equally important for the less obvious reason that they served to set the standard which, in turn, determined the standard on which the colleges operated. During the period from the Dartmouth College Case in 1819, which, in effect, established the legal status of the independent colleges, until 1870, some 500 colleges came into existence in America. But less than 200 of these have survived until the present day. The rest have disappeared into history, basically because the instruction they offered could not compare with the instruction freely available in the public high schools. In other words, any college, to survive, had to be at least as good as the mean standard of public high-school instruction available to its clientele. Inevitably, this meant that college instruction came to be based on high-school instruction; and, finally, it has come to mean that the offering of the public high schools control the college entrance requirements.

The second step in the change was the change in college requirements, both entrance and degree, in response to pressures from secondary schools, or, more precisely, in response to social and cultural pressures.

The immediate and obvious form of these changes was the introduction of so-called scientific and literary courses leading to degrees variously labeled the Ph.B., the B.L., the B.Litt., or the B.S. These

courses were actually related to the minor changes in entrance requirements which had taken place during the years 1800-1860. That is, they dropped Greek as a degree requirement and substituted modern language, but retained Latin.

At the same time, entrance requirements began to change by bringing in English Composition, United States History, Modern Languages, Physics, Chemistry, and additional Mathematics, all familiar subjects which were to retain their position in exactly that form as long as the unit system was maintained—that is, until the late 1930's. But, at least during the period 1870-1900, these subjects did not entirely displace the classics. If Greek was expendable, Latin was not, for it remained immovable as an entrance requirement until well after the turn of the century. In fact, in the form of the so-called classical option which accepted four years of Latin in lieu of a modern language and sciences, Latin remained as a preferred college entrance subject well into the 1930's.

With so much accomplished in the way of change, only one more action was needed to complete the break with the colonial entrance requirements and the colonial degree requirements. This was to drop Latin as a degree requirement and to give to all students the right to work for the A.B. degree. This change finally took place in most leading colleges during the period 1910-1930. By 1940 it was accomplished fact, save in the Catholic colleges and a few independent and tax-supported institutions.

These changes in requirements were made possible, and, in fact, forced by the rise of the public high school as the chief instrument of secondary education. I think that here it is worth digressing to point out that 1870 was as near a decisive date as any that has ever been identified in American higher education. As matters turn out, it was a date when American colleges, including the colonial foundations, which were the leading institutions, began to move from the classical tradition into the stream of public education with its connotations of educational opportunity for all. But it must be emphasized that other systems of higher education all over the world had the same opportunity at the same time and for the same reasons. The storms of social change swept England and the continent at least once in every generation from Napoleon to the close of the Franco-Prussian War, but only in America did they affect higher education. It is perhaps significant that in our country it was higher education that was eventually

revolutionized, while in Europe the university students became revolutionaries, but higher education itself remained untouched. Indeed, this revolution that began for us in the 1870's has only and just barely begun to touch European higher education. Thus we can, by looking at European education today, get a very fair idea of what American higher education might now be had it not been for the great change that began in the late 19th century.

III

The period that I have called the recent past lasted from 1870 until some time in the 1930's. The span of about sixty years was characterized by three common elements as far as entrance requirements were concerned. These were:

1. Entrance requirements were primarily quantitative. A certain minimum amount of study was expected, stated either in terms of books to be read, or years to be spent in study, or units of work, which was another way of stating years.

2. The ideal requirements were stated in terms of the classics. Students offering Latin and Greek were given preferred treatment in terms of requirements for admission and in terms of their candidacy for degrees. In many of the strongest colleges the A.B., which was the preferred degree, depended upon the study of Latin both in secondary school and college.

3. Entrance requirements were enforced either by examination of the individual or examination of the school, or both.

In their administration these entrance requirements were characterized by two other aspects:

The first is that only rudimentary attention was given to individual differences in either ability or preparation. The first tests which in any way supplied information about individual differences in ability, or which undertook on a broad scale to test actual level of achievements, made their appearance in the nineteen twenties. They were the Thorndike Intelligence Test and the Co-operative Achievement Tests. (I have excluded the College Board tests from this category since they were not widely used, and were not thought of as placement tests even though they were on occasion used as a basis for the award of advanced credit.)

The second is that not much more than lip service was given to the principle of selection. It may have been that there were colleges in

the country during the period 1870-1930 which regularly had more candidates who met the minimum entrance requirements than they had vacancies, but if so this was true only in a highly technical sense. In general, the only students refused admission to any colleges were obviously poor risks, and there were not many colleges which would turn even those away. The most that can be said about selection during those years is that by 1930 a good many colleges understood the principle of selection and were looking forward to recruiting programs and other procedures which would enable them to raise standards to the point where they could be selective.

The period during which students could be admitted to college upon the satisfaction of minimum quantitative requirements showed its first sign of coming to an end in the East in 1932, when Union College abandoned subject distribution as an entrance criterion. This may or may not be historically accurate for it is based on my own recollection of the grief and headshaking with which Adam Leroy Jones at Columbia greeted this announcement, which turned his orderly world upside down. When the University of Chicago, a little later, announced its changes both in entrance requirements and degree requirements, it was obvious that something was in the breeze. As usual, it took the breeze some time to develop into a wind. During the next seven years, a good many colleges, driven more by a need for student enrollments than by any theoretical considerations, indulged in vaguely worded rewritings of entrance requirements which more or less eliminated unit requirements. But the break with the past was not definite until 1941, when Yale, Harvard, and Princeton agreed to forsake the College Board's subject-matter, essay tests, and turn to the shorter objective tests supported by the SAT. By coincidence, the date was December 7. Thus, an era ended precisely and neatly on a date when the outbreak of a war made it clear that a new phase in American life was to begin.

In discussing this period of sixty or seventy years, I have not paid any particular attention to the foundation of the College Board. My reasoning is that the creation of the Board is properly viewed only as one of a number of efforts to regulate admission procedures which took place between 1870 and 1940. The earliest effort I have been able to trace is the introduction of the diploma concept by the University of Michigan in 1870. This was essentially an accrediting procedure whereby the University examined high schools and decided

upon their fitness to prepare students for admission to the University. This system gained general acceptance in the Middle West and the Far West and, carried over into lists of state-approved high schools, remains the basis of much college admission today. Its disadvantage from an administrative viewpoint is of course that the universities and colleges tend to lose control of the system, and that the state secondary education organization tends to take it over, which, indeed, has happened in nearly all states except California.

During the years 1879-1883, the New England colleges attempted to get general agreement as to subject matter requirements in English, Classics, and Mathematics. These efforts, which showed at least paper success, were followed by the organization of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in 1885, and the Commission of Colleges in New England on Entrance Examinations in 1886. The Middle States Association was founded in 1892, and in 1895 the Southern Association and the North Central Association. While these regional activities were going on, the National Educational Association had formed its Committee of Ten in 1892, and, upon receipt of the report of that committee, appointed its Committee on College Entrance Requirements in 1895. Further reports and studies were carried on by that committee until 1899, and the recommendations based upon them were the basis of the action of the Middle States Association in voting the formation of a College Entrance Examination Board in 1899. In 1902 that Board voted a resolution inviting the New England Association to join with the promise that if the invitation were accepted, the name would be changed by dropping the words "the Middle States and Maryland." This was in time done, and the Board assumed its present title. The acquisition of strength and stability was another matter. It was nearly fifteen years before the Board was firmly established and twenty-five years before the standards and operations of the Board came to be generally regarded as controlling college preparation and college entrance.

These negotiations did not by any means end the struggle toward uniformity. The system of units for the evaluation of diplomas had been inaugurated by the New York State Regents about 1890. It was recommended for general adoption by the Committee on College Entrance Requirements in 1899 and became firmly embedded in our system by the use made of it by the Carnegie Foundation for the

Advancement of Teaching when they used it as one of their criteria in defining a college for the purposes of their pension program.

It is worth noting that two major attempts were made to break the unit system before it broke of its own weight after the war. The first attempt was the development of the Cooperative Achievement Tests. These tests, which were the first to make large-scale application of objective techniques in subject-matter testing, developed rapidly during the 1920's and were eventually carried to the point where they received a major tryout in the Pennsylvania study. This study, which started in 1928 with a state-wide testing program for high school seniors, continued in 1930 with a college sophomore testing, and concluded in 1932 with a college senior testing program, proved beyond any doubt that differences in individuals, in schools, and in colleges could be quantified by means of a testing program. It not only did that but went farther and suggested that a perfectly good admissions program, with built-in programs of guidance, of placement, and of advanced placement could be built on objective subject matter testing. But there it stopped. Attempts to develop such a program foundered upon the shoals of custom and the reefs of tradition; and after a few years of effort to develop admissions, placement, and guidance programs built on cumulative records, the project, along with the shoals and reefs on which it was stuck, disappeared into the abyss of war. It did, however, leave one important heritage in the form of a series of tests inaugurated by the College Board during the mid-thirties for the purpose of early selection of scholarship candidates. The first such tests, which were a joint project of the College Board and the Cooperative Test Service, were so successful that the program became a permanent part of the Board's activities, and, as we know, became eventually the Board's subject matter testing program.

The second attempt to break the unit system was made under the aegis of the Progressive Education Association, which inaugurated its Thirty Schools Study in 1932. This study undertook to establish that it was the total school experience which prepared for college, not the particular subjects studied. The results of the study tended to support the argument, but the design of the experiment was such that it was never possible to show that the approach urged by the PEA was any better than the traditional one. The most that could be demonstrated was that good students from good schools did well in good colleges,

regardless of the exact pattern of their preparation. Since this was already known or suspected by a good many people, the eight-year study did not have its anticipated effect of breaking up the unit system. This, as I have already suggested, was breaking up for the far simpler reason that colleges could no longer enforce their sixty-year-old entrance requirements and at the same time get freshman classes of acceptable size. Nevertheless, the study had its importance, for it provided documentary support for a position that colleges were, for purely practical reasons, beginning to occupy. How long the process of occupation would have taken if it had not been for the war is anybody's guess, but it is a fair assumption that admission requirements and the method of their enforcement would have been in their present position at the present time, regardless of the war.

At this point in the paper, when I am about to launch into a discussion of admission requirements in the present with the present defined as 1941-1955, it is worth while recapitulating to the extent of pointing out that changes in entrance requirements during the period 1640 to 1940 were on two levels. On the subject-matter level, the changes consisted of removing Latin from the required category and substituting English, History, Mathematics, and Science, an operation which required three hundred years for completion. But this subject-matter level is only the external and obvious aspect. Actually, what required three hundred years was the development of a general system of education. This system, while it maintained a reference point in classical educational patterns brought over from England, was slowly, and conservatively, adapted to the requirements of a growing country and a developing culture. In this adaptation the needs of the people were expressed by changing the system of secondary education, and these changes were in their turn slowly accepted in higher education. This slow process of change was sharply and suddenly interrupted by World War II.

IV

In discussing entrance requirements as they now exist, we must bear in mind that the war had three separate and distinct effects upon higher education.

The first effect was to turn our institutions of higher education into adjuncts of the war effort. Nearly every male student who entered college during the years 1941-45 did so in the expectation of be-

coming either a fighting man, a specialist, or a civilian war worker. And, since there were unlimited needs in all of these categories, the higher institutions were under heavy pressure to set aside their ordinary academic standards and establish new ones which would permit maximum enrollments in all three categories. Indeed, no pressure was needed, for the rapid passage of students in and out of the colleges created a serious financial situation which required liberal enrollment standards. As a result, new admissions standards were adopted or allowed to operate without formal adoption, and these remained in force after the war.

The second effect was to dramatize for the nation as a whole the importance of higher education, and at the same time to make it clear that advanced education and training were not beyond the reach of anyone who could bring reasonable ability and reasonable motivation to his quest. All the pressures of war went into this dramatization; and when the pressures were off, the results remained, so that higher education became a goal for thousands who would never have thought of it before the war.

This third effect was to turn our institutions into a part of the postwar readjustment program. The G.I. Bill of Rights, which was adopted on the basis of a profound miscalculation as to the numbers that would make use of it, became, instead of a minor stop-gap tool of readjustment, a major instrument of national policy. As a result, the institutions were flooded with students and forced, without plans, facilities, or resources, to accept an expansion which was beyond the wildest imaginings of the seers and prophets of the 1930's.

The actual flooding of the immediate postwar years ebbed and slacked off, pretty much according to projections during the period 1949-53. Then, in defiance of all prophecies, admissions pressures began to return. The reasons for these pressures are not clear, but in my judgment they can, at least in part, be traced to the changed attitude toward higher education brought about by the war. But, however accurate this estimate, the fact is that they returned, not in the indiscriminate across-the-board pattern of 1946 and 1947, but selectively, at first bearing with particular weight on a numerically small group of prestige institutions, and now showing signs of imminent spread to most of the major tax-supported institutions and to the sizable group of independent institutions that have been in the "respectable" rather than the "prestige" class.

During this ten-year post-war period, at least six of which have been marked by admissions pressures ranging from moderate to heavy, admission requirements, so far as their statement is concerned, have reached a fairly uniform level which may be euphemistically characterized as "flexible." Some specimens drawn at random from *The College Handbook* 1953-5 will suffice to make my point:

Elmira: ". . . a student must have completed a preparatory course of study satisfactory to the committee on admissions."

Gettysburg: ". . . the college is more interested in the character of the individual and the quality of his preparation, than in the exact distribution of subjects . . . four years of English and two years of theoretical mathematics are the only absolute course requirements."

Harvard: ". . . The quality of work in secondary school is more important than the particular program of courses. Ideally, however, good preparation for Harvard requires solid training in English for four years, study of at least one foreign language carried to the point of reasonable mastery if possible, three or more years of mathematics if possible, and one or more courses in the social studies and in science."

University of Virginia: ". . . credit must be presented for at least three units in English, one and one-half in Algebra and one in Plane Geometry. The remaining units are elective."

This flexibility demonstrated by the requirements just quoted has had the effect of making it possible for any high school graduate to apply to any college, a goal which has for thirty years been actively enshrined by secondary school leaders. During the temporary admissions recession of 1949-53, nearly all colleges exploited this possibility through the medium of recruiting campaigns, and recently these recruiting efforts have been, in effect, joined by corporations and foundations that have sponsored major scholarship programs.

Now that these recruiting efforts have been under way for some six years, it has become apparent that there are certain problems coming in their wake.

The first major problem is that admission requirements which are pretty much in conformity with the secondary school curriculum no longer provide for any preselection of candidates. Therefore, much work in the sorting of candidates that was once done by college catalogues or even by institutional reputations must now be done by admissions officers.

The second problem is that admissions applications have tended

to follow the lines of the best recruiting campaigns, but that actual candidates' choices have tended to follow the lines of prestige. When the two coincide, as is often the case, the work of the admissions office is multiplied, and when the two do not coincide, work, albeit of a different kind and with different results, also ensues.

The net result of the nonselective character of admission requirements, plus the pressures of recruiting campaigns, plus the normal pressures of applicants which today just about match the number of college vacancies, has been to create a situation wherein the phraseology of the admission requirements is not nearly so important as the manner of their enforcement.

We are all aware that it is today possible to establish three general groupings of institutions classified according to their admissions practices. One grouping practices open admission on simple fulfillment of minimum stated requirements; another, selective admission, amounting to not much more than the rejection of the unfit; and a third, competitive admission, where the choice is between highly qualified candidates. There is no great difference in the written entrance requirements established by institutions operating on any of these three levels. The only difference is in the enforcement of the requirements, which, as noted in the first paragraphs of this paper, goes back to the point of student supply and demand.

The bulk of actual admissions in America today is in the open, or nonselective, category, but it is probable that the total number of applications (though not of individual applicants) is larger in the selective and competitive categories. This underlines the fact that our system of higher education is a national system, open to every aspirant regardless of intellectual level. There are disadvantages to this—it is costly, it is wasteful of human endeavor—but it has the value of permitting great freedom of action, not only to applicants but to our institutions. The principal benefactors of this freedom of action are the institutions that practice selective and competitive admission, for these institutions can set their standards at any level they may determine without public outcry or legislative intervention, a privilege which is not enjoyed by universities anywhere else in the world. But applicants also benefit from it, for they may make their try for the best, and if turned away by the small group of prestige institutions, may still find lodging in the larger group of nonselective institutions but still remaining within the system. Thus, the nonselective institu-

tions act, in engineering parlance, as safety valves, for those students who seek but do not gain admission to the prestige institutions can still get a good education and still have other chances to go to the prestige institutions on the professional or graduate level.

The fact that all higher institutions are trying to stimulate college-going and that recently corporations and foundations have joined in this stimulation tends to swell the total applicant group and has an immediate effect of increasing pressure upon the prestige institutions. These in turn respond by increasing their requirements, setting up a chain reaction which ultimately increases pressure upon the larger groups of selective and nonselective institutions that are collectively their safety valve.

Lest I seem to have oversimplified my flow analysis, let me point out that there are internal reactions within these groupings which tends to push institutions toward a selective or competitive admissions program. These are local pushes within the national pattern, affected by population shifts and institutional developments. They will affect the national college-going situation only if there is a national decision to change the present pattern of permitting college opportunity for all.

There is another point to be made with respect to present requirements and procedures. It is to note a tendency for schools and colleges to accept joint responsibility for the individual student. At present this joint responsibility is not much more than an adjunct of the college recruiting programs, but it is quite clear that guidance programs are developing in our secondary schools and also clear that our college admissions officers are slowly developing their own skills and interests in the guidance fields. If this trend continues, it is certain to affect for the better the entire pattern of entrance requirements, their administration, and their results.

Although there is much more to be said about entrance requirements and admission practices in the present, I think it is perhaps more important to get on into the future.

V

I have found great difficulty in writing a satisfactory section on the future of entrance requirements. I have finally concluded that the reason for the difficulty lay in my own obstinate refusal to accept a conclusion that is inevitable from the argument in the body of this

paper, namely that colleges no longer have entrance requirements in the standard sense of the phrase.

Once arrived at and stated this proposition is remarkably easy to defend. Entrance requirements developing over the years along the lines set by the evolution of the secondary school curriculum are now stated in much the same terms as the requirements for graduation from a modern comprehensive tax-supported high school. This of course means that students who fulfill these graduation requirements can apply to most if not all of the colleges in the land with the assurance that their applications will be considered. This means that the original function of entrance requirements, which was to provide a standard by which students could be preselected, has been abandoned. In a social sense, of course, this is a good thing. No one can tell how many able students were, during the twenties and early thirties, discouraged from all thought of going to college by the discovery that the course they had followed in secondary school simply did not entitle them even to preliminary consideration by any of the colleges in which they were interested. The way is now open for such students to apply. This is of course what the colleges want, for they are searching for ability and promise in whatever packaging it may come. In fact they have been searching so assiduously that they have been willing to give up the clerical advantages of formal entrance requirements which preselected their applicants in order to attain the social and intellectual advantages arising from a widening of their fields of choice.

The colleges could give up the formal entrance requirements of yesteryear because they had a secret weapon in the form of tests which enabled them to make their selections on the basis of aptitude and promise, and they had adequate empirical proof that selections made on this basis were as good as, and perhaps better than, selections made on the basis of their old standardized requirements. Therefore these tests were in time installed in place of the old entrance requirements and the colleges took unto themselves a freedom of selection that they had never enjoyed before.

But for every action there is an equal and opposite reaction. The reaction to elimination of the barriers to mass application to college was precisely the encouragement of mass application to college. This could have been predicted, and perhaps would have been predicted were it not for the fact that the elimination of these barriers was a

gradual affair, college by college, and region by region, actually not yet completed. Furthermore the realization that the barriers had been eliminated was also a gradual affair. The whole development of mass application has been a matter of seven or eight years, and those years have each in their turn had their own special characteristics—years of war, a year of recession, years of fear, still close to us in time, and the years of the boom that now enfolds us. But through these years the steady development of the pressures of mass application has been inexorable; and as this mass of applications hit the new entrance requirements operating on the unpublished criteria established in terms of tests and assessments, the collision produced the terrifying phenomenon we know as multiple applications. Viewed in this light, then, multiple applications are nothing more than candidate efforts to find the institutions that will grant the most favorable terms in their applications of criteria that are never made known to the applicant, criteria based on test scores that he does not know, and on assessments that are held confidential from him.

If we accept these propositions—that colleges in abandoning their rigorous entrance requirements stated in terms of units also abandoned a selective device that had served to hold down the numbers of applicants; that this abandonment encouraged mass applications to college; that selection among the increased number of applicants was accomplished through tests, measurements, and assessments; that the new form of selection produced results equal to or better than the old and was preferred to it; and that candidate uncertainties as to selection, reasonably based on the fact that the selection criteria were not made known to the applicant, brought about multiple applications as the only possible defense against uncertainty—then we have accomplished two things.

First, we have established an explanation of multiple applications which can be supported on the basis that it takes into account all of the more obvious variables in the admissions situation.

Second, we have laid down lines which point to the next logical development in admission requirements.

Let me state these lines in the form of two propositions, the first of which is as follows: our principal problem today is the enforcement of admission requirements in selection among candidates. We have eliminated the device which was once vital in this process, and have pinned our faith on a later selection based upon tests. This later

selection is now running into clerical and administrative problems that are so great as to require urgent action. A simple and effective form of action that can be taken immediately—that is to say within a year or two—is the introduction of another and simpler test that can be used by all the parties to the selection process, the school, the college, and the candidate. This would be a feasible, inexpensive, and valuable addition to the admissions process, and when made, would supply in time a standard by which the candidate might measure himself in making his decision as to the college to which he would apply.

This would be the first change in admission requirements that might be predicted.

The second proposition is that the colleges, in ceasing to state subject requirements for admission, have ceased to provide guidance as to even the broad outlines of their own programs. This is an omission that in the long run must be remedied. The remedy is simple enough. It is a statement that the contemporary college curriculum is based on a study of the humanities, the social studies, the sciences, including mathematics, and the languages. Such a statement would not be a reinstitution of the curricular control against which the secondary schools have made their justified and successful protest. It would merely be a notice that even the ablest student would neglect at his peril to prepare himself for the studies that he would follow in college.

This is the second change in admission requirements that might be predicted.

Beyond these two predictions I do not dare to go. Actually I think that it will require ten years to bring about and implement the two changes I have suggested if they do in fact come to pass. It will then be time enough for another and hopefully wiser man to attempt a new set of analyses and predictions.

Is a Historical Directory of Higher Education Needed?

WALTER CROSBY EELLS

A NEW REGISTRAR in a large middle western university wishes to compile a directory of all institutions which have sent students to his university. Among his records, arranged for convenience, by clerical assistants, alphabetically, he finds that students have transferred from Columbia College, Dubuque College, Loras College, St. Bernard's Seminary, St. Joseph College, and St. Raphael's Seminary. Will he list them as six different institutions? He may, unless he has a complete system of cross-indexing or unless he has sufficient historical knowledge or pure clairvoyance to recognize that these are all different names of one and the same institution in Dubuque, Iowa.

The admissions officer in a far western university in the spring of 1956 receives transcripts from a group of graduates of California junior colleges. Some of these prospective juniors have been delayed in entering the university, perhaps by military service, since their graduation from junior college. Among their transcripts, the admissions officer finds ones from Central Junior College, Grant Technical College, Placer College, and Santa Maria Junior College. Wishing to find something about the character and standing of these institutions, he consults the 1956 edition of *American Junior Colleges* but finds none of these institutions listed in it. Have they gone out of existence? By no means. All he needs to do (if he is wise enough) is to look under Imperial Valley College, American River Junior College, Sierra College, and Allen Hancock College, in order, and he will find the latest pertinent information concerning each of the four institutions in question. They have merely changed their names since the 1952 edition of *American Junior Colleges* was published.

A historian of education, interested especially in state universities, finds in his reading such names as Newark College, Bacon College, Blount College, and Central College. How probable is it that he will immediately identify them as early names of the present Universities of Delaware, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia respectively?

VARIATIONS IN NAMES FREQUENT

These three hypothetical cases illustrate vividly the frequent changes in names of American institutions of higher education. Not

only do they change names with disturbing frequency, but they often change location also, as well as control or denominational affiliation.

In an effort to keep up with these constant variations and furnish latest reliable information, numerous directories of American colleges and universities are published at regular or irregular intervals. Among the best known and most useful are the two published every four years by the American Council on Education, *American Universities and Colleges* and *American Junior Colleges*, and the annual directories of the U. S. Office of Education and the American Association of Junior Colleges. Many others have appeared, including those compiled by Hurt, Sargent, Patterson, Good, the Church Boards of Education, and certain teachers agencies.

Most of these directories, however, give only the *present* name, location, and control or affiliation of the institution named. The two volumes published by the American Council on Education are the only ones known to the writer which give previous names and locations, at least in part; but neither of them has any system of cross-references or indexing by means of which an institution can be quickly found if its *present* name is not known. In neither of them, for example, does the name of Columbia College, Central Junior College, or Newark College (from the examples above) occur in their indexes.

Are these only isolated or exceptional instances or are different names for the same institution frequent? If so, how frequent? To give a partial answer to this question, a rough check has been made of the names of regionally accredited colleges and universities to appear in the seventh edition of *American Universities and Colleges*, to be published in April 1956.¹ It shows the following situation with reference to the names of these institutions:

	Number	Percentage
One name only	262	28
Two names	326	35
Three names	229	24
Four names	94	10
Five names	26	3

¹ Appreciation is expressed to the American Council on Education for permission to use the galley proofs of this volume and of the fourth edition of *American Junior Colleges*, mentioned below. Total institutions in the published volumes may be slightly larger than totals shown here.

Six names	4	—
Seven names	2	—
Eight names	1	—
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	944	100

Thus considerably fewer than one third of the accredited colleges and universities of the country have had only a single name. More than a third of them have had three or more names each. At present there is no simple and sure way of locating many of these earlier names and identifying them with present institutions.

A similar check has been made of 532 names of accredited junior colleges, to appear in the fourth edition of *American Junior Colleges*, also planned for publication in April 1956. The following situation is shown:

	Number	Percentage
One name only	183	34
Two names	199	38
Three names	109	21
Four names	34	6
Five names	5	1
Six names	1	—
Seven names	1	—
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	532	100

Thus even for the much younger junior college movement, a product almost entirely of the twentieth century, only slightly more than one third of the institutions have borne only a single name. Almost a third of them have had three or more names each.

The 1945-55 *Education Directory* (Part 3, "Higher Education") of the U. S. Office of Education, which includes 1857 institutions of higher education, lists 30 institutions which have changed their names within a single year.

The announcement a few weeks ago that Pennsylvania College for Women has changed its name to Chatham College is perhaps the latest example of this continuing process.

DEFUNCT INSTITUTIONS

Institutions of higher education now in existence, however, are only a part, perhaps only a small part, of the total number of such

institutions that have existed during our three centuries and more of educational history, and concerning which information should be available in convenient form. Perhaps it is not literally true, as poetically stated in another connection by William Cullen Bryant in *Thanatopsis*, that "All that tread the globe are but a handful to the tribes that slumber in its bosom," but this statement is closer to statistical accuracy than is commonly supposed when applied to the "tribes" of American educational institutions. Certainly no other country in the world has had such a multiplicity of institutions of higher education, living and extinct, as the United States. One of the striking aspects of higher education in this country, however, has been the very high mortality rate.

More than a century ago, President Lindsley of the University of Nashville (now George Peabody College for Teachers) said, in 1829: "Colleges rise up like mushrooms in our luxurious soil. They are duly lauded and puffed for a day, and then they sink to be heard no more."² How much more vividly he might have endeavored to characterize the conditions had he lived a century later, can only be guessed. Consider a few pertinent facts.

Tewksbury³ made an intensive study of conditions in 16 states before the Civil War. He found that 516 colleges were founded prior to 1861, of which 412 had died by 1930, a mortality rate of 80 per cent. The rate of mortality varied from a minimum of 48 per cent in Pennsylvania to 95 per cent in Kansas and Texas and 100 per cent in Arkansas and Florida.

Dannelly⁴ in 1933 found that during the 56 years prior to 1902, no fewer than 777 institutions of higher education had been established under the auspices of the Southern Methodist Church alone. Only 49 of these survived in 1933—a mortality of 94 per cent. And this refers to only one of a dozen or more denominations which have been active in the establishment of colleges.

The first list of colleges published by the United States Com-

² LeRoy J. Halsey, Editor, *The Works of Philip Lindsley*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1866. Vol. 1, p. 213.

³ Donald G. Tewksbury, *The Founding of American Colleges and Universities before the Civil War*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932, p. 28.

⁴ Clarence Moore Dannelly, *The Development of Collegiate Education in the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, 1846-1902*. New Haven, 1933. Unpublished doctoral dissertation at Yale University.

missioner of Education is found in his *Report* for 1870. Of the 369 "colleges and collegiate institutions" there listed, only half survive today, at least under their 1870 names or easily recognizable variations thereof.

The first national list of junior colleges was given by McDowell⁶ in his doctoral dissertation at the State University of Iowa. Of the 105 institutions which he reported, only one third of them, at least under the same name or an identifiably related name, are found in the 1955 *Junior College Directory*.

These examples, of course, are only samples for limited periods and for special types or groups of institutions. The total number of institutions of higher education which have existed but are now defunct no one knows, but the number probably runs into the thousands. This is not the place to discuss the reasons for this high rate of mortality; but among the main causes Tewksbury lists financial disaster, denominational competition, unfavorable location, natural catastrophe, and internal dissensions.

NEED FOR COMPREHENSIVE HISTORICAL DIRECTORY

Enough has been stated above to point up the need not only for a *Who's Who* but also a *Who Was Who* among American institutions. What is needed is a current and historical directory of higher educational institutions in the United States which will include every institution, existing or defunct, suitably cross-referenced so as to show quickly every name by which each institution is or has been known. How many names would there be in such a directory? Any estimate is hazardous, but the writer ventures the following tentative estimates on the basis of information given above:

Source	Institutions	Duplicate names	Total names
Accredited universities and colleges	950	1,250	2,200
(From <i>American Universities and Colleges</i>)			
Accredited junior colleges	550	550	1,100
(From <i>American Junior Colleges</i>)			
Other existing institutions	500	500	1,000
(From U. S. Office of Education, etc.)			
Defunct institutions	4,500	1,200	5,700
(From various sources)			
Totals	6,500	3,500	10,000

⁶ F. M. McDowell, *The Junior College*. Washington: U. S. Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1919, No. 35. Pp. 139.

Thus there might be more than 6,000 institutions with 10,000 or more alphabetical entries concerning them. It is quite possible that this estimate may be to low.

INSTITUTIONS TO BE INCLUDED

What institutions and units should be included in such a comprehensive directory? The writer feels that the following, in a single alphabetical listing, would be useful: (1) all presently existing universities, senior colleges, junior colleges, and professional schools, both by present name and all former names, listed in recognized educational directories; (2) all such institutions no longer in existence; (3) component units of these institutions when separately named, such as the Wharton School (of the University of Pennsylvania), the Amos Tuck School (of Dartmouth College), Flora Stone Mather College (of Western Reserve University), or Pearsons Academy (of Whitman College); (4) institutions located in foreign countries but with American Boards of Trustees legally organized in the United States (China, Middle East, etc.); (5) fraudulent institutions or "diploma mills" now fortunately extinct, or almost so.

INFORMATION TO BE FURNISHED

What information should be included in such a directory? Probably at least the following: all names and locations with dates of changes in either; dates of founding, chartering, opening, and other major historical events; changes from junior to senior college status or vice versa; control or affiliation (public—national, state, county, district, or city; private—nonsectarian or denominational, with name of denomination); reason for name if not obvious. Readers of this article may think of other information which they feel would be useful. No effort should be made to duplicate the comprehensive descriptive information already available in other reference volumes. The proposed new directory should concentrate on basic information for the most part not otherwise conveniently available. Printing the names of existing institutions, defunct institutions, and cross references in three different styles of type would add to convenience of use.

More than twenty years ago, Tewksbury said:⁶ "Much of the present chaos with respect to such matters as the date of founding of a col-

⁶ Tewksbury, *op. cit.*, pp. 29-30.

lege, the changes in name and location, the date of the granting of legal right to confer degrees, and the denominational or other associations, appears to be due in large part at least to the want of some standard reference in which such aspects of the college movement are set forth in an accurate and definitive manner." The "present chaos" has not lessened in the years since this statement was made.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

What sources could be consulted in the compilation of such a directory? A wealth of material is available in libraries in Washington, D.C., including those of the U.S. Office of Education, Library of Congress, Catholic University of America, American Council on Education, National Catholic Welfare Conference, American Association of Junior Colleges, etc. The library of the Office of Education has a unique and invaluable collection of some 85,000 college and university catalogues, many of them reaching back to the establishment of the office in 1867 or earlier, including those of many institutions no longer in existence. It also has many histories of individual institutions, extensive collections of various directories, and files of early educational journals. Particularly useful too should be its series of over thirty state histories of higher education published by the Office between 1887 and 1903, many of them doctoral dissertations at Johns Hopkins University. Many other doctoral dissertations have been written more recently dealing with the history of denominational colleges or other specialized groups of higher educational institutions. Libraries and archives of denominational boards of education should yield additional material. All of the above would need to be carefully checked, discrepancies noted, results reconciled, and basic information systematized as uniformly as the data would permit.

USEFULNESS OF PROPOSED DIRECTORY

The usefulness of the proposed directory to university and college registrars and admissions officers has already been suggested. But many other individuals would also find occasion to consult it. State education officials often need the kinds of information it would afford in verifying claims of candidates for teaching credentials and in evaluating their credits. The U. S. Civil Service Commission would find it useful in checking claims for degrees from institutions no

longer in existence from many applicants for government positions. Recently the U. S. Office of Education, in connection with the settlement of an estate in Wisconsin, was asked to furnish information concerning a college which closed more than thirty years ago. Only with considerable difficulty and extra correspondence, and partially by chance, was it able to give the needed information. Numerous requests come to the Office that are difficult or impossible to answer now but which could be answered easily and with confidence if such a volume as proposed here were available. Every reference librarian in both public and university libraries has many such questions. Students of the history of education would find frequent occasions to consult such a volume.

NOTE: There are few people as well qualified to undertake such a project as outlined in this article as Dr. Eells. He was formerly Advisor on Higher Education, Civil Information and Education Section, General Headquarters, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, Tokyo. Earlier, he was Chief of the Foreign Education Division of the Veterans Administration, and before that was for seven years executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges and editor of the *Junior College Journal*. He is the author of *Communism in Education in Asia, Africa and the Far Pacific*, and of other books and numerous articles.

Dr. Eells is deeply interested in the subject of a Historical Directory of Higher Education in the United States, and has expressed his willingness to undertake the preparation of such a volume if there is sufficient interest. Although AACRAO is not in a position to underwrite such a project at this time, the Executive Committee went on record at its last meeting to encourage the project and to commend it to interested groups. It is our earnest hope that Dr. Eells will proceed with the study and that this significant information will be made available to all registrars and admissions officers as well as to others in the field of higher education.

E.C.D.

Travel-Study Abroad

CLARA H. KOENIG

I

WE ALL KNOW that the migration of students is not a new phenomenon: even in ancient times, and throughout the Middle Ages, students went from their home countries to seek learning in another. In most cases the reason was personal: the gratification of a desire to increase their knowledge and be stimulated by the words and personality of some great scholar. This "migration" was an individual one, for the most part: rarely did more than one go at a time. A bit later, it became the fashionable thing for the elite scholar to travel abroad in order to acquire a certain polish and worldliness that could not be gotten by the home fireside.

Gradually a new reason emerged, especially after the appearance of the United States on the world scene. Foreign universities have helped to create and to nourish the American. In fact, the influence of the universities of one nation on those of another existed almost as early as the universities themselves: the medieval universities had a place in medieval international relationships along with empires and the Papacy. When in the twentieth century there arose the necessity of trying to attain world peace through international understanding as an alternative to world destruction through war, the governments of the world took a hand in it, and the migration of students increased from a trickle to a flood. When we consider that, according to latest reports, there were 34,232 students from abroad in our institutions of higher learning, and between 6,000 and 7,000 students and over 1,000 faculty members from the United States in other countries, we can begin to appreciate the change that has come about in the interchange of studying and teaching personnel.

Of course there has been nationalistic propaganda in this project, but by and large it has been undertaken in the interest of the public welfare. Recently the pendulum has begun to swing back again, from complete emphasis on international relationships to the development of the individual. The hope that "world peace and mutual trust will grow from our learning to understand one another" through the interchange of students has given way to a more realistic one, and

few still believe that "peace can be bought at so cheap a price." The foreign student, instead of being regarded as a sort of "unofficial representative or ambassador from a foreign land" is more and more being looked upon as a person seeking knowledge, truth, and wisdom, which he will use in the furtherance of peaceful ends. The former is being relegated to the position of a by-product of the system, rather than its chief objective; and the reasons for going abroad to study, as expressed by Viscount Haldane are as valid now as they were when he wrote, years ago, that "no amount of study at home can ever give the equivalent of personal contact, especially if it be with the personality of a great teacher. That is why I would have every student who can do so, take a session or two at a foreign university. It is no mere question of advantage in the study of some particular branch of knowledge that arises. It is the greater question of broadening and deepening the foundation on which must rest all possible knowledge."

With so many "firsts" attached to the name of Benjamin Franklin, it should probably cause no surprise that he was the first American to visit a German university. This was in 1776; and from that day to this, with the exception of the war years, the German influence on our institutions has been an important one. It is believed that the University of Pennsylvania owes its existence to this visit of Franklin's. The freedom and activity of German thought at that time no doubt exercised considerable influence on the spirit on which our university system rests.

Now, with our problem of increasing enrollments, a new reason has been advanced for advocating study abroad, in keeping with the keynote sounded at the Boston meeting of AACRAO that "the rising tide raises all the boats." Here is a means of getting some of our students from under our feet, while at the same time giving them an opportunity for personal satisfaction as well as furthering the objective of international understanding.

II

Now we shall examine some of the most important projects that have been developed for the migration of students from the United States to other countries. One of the best known is, undoubtedly, the so-called *Junior Year Abroad*. In view of the difficulty American students often have in being accepted in institutions abroad, and since

the "credit system" is not used there, certain colleges and universities in this country have made special arrangements for students to study abroad for a year. The general purpose of the programs, which are open to undergraduates of accredited colleges and universities, is to give American students an opportunity to live in another country and acquire a better understanding of another culture, and at the same time to earn credit toward a bachelor's degree from their own colleges. These programs are supervised by American faculty members who supplement the regular university courses with lectures and examinations. An intensive preparatory course in the country's language and customs is given before the beginning of the academic year. Individual arrangements can sometimes be made between a student and a college to spend the junior year abroad independent of these groups, and on the other hand, it is sometimes possible for a student who is not a member of a certain college to join such a group. Naturally, special arrangements must be made with the individual college concerned.

Junior Years Abroad have been organized as follows:

- Rosary College, River Forest, Illinois: Fribourg, Switzerland.
- Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts: Paris, France; Perugia and Florence, Italy; Oviedo and Madrid, Spain; Geneva, Switzerland; Toronto, Canada; and beginning in 1955, one in Germany.
- Sweet Briar College, Sweet Briar, Virginia (formerly administered by the University of Delaware): Paris, France; St. Andrew's, Scotland.
- Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan: Munich, Germany.
- Tulane University (Newcomb College for Women), New Orleans: Paris, France; Birmingham and Reading, England.
- Hollins College, Virginia, has a new program, according to which Sophomores will go to the Sorbonne, Paris, in February, and return to the Hollins campus at the end of January of their junior year. This gives them twelve months of study and travel, including three summer months.

Graduate Programs

For graduate students, programs abroad include those at the Universities of Copenhagen and Aarhus in Denmark; Middlebury, Vermont, has a center in Paris, and one in Madrid, Spain; Johns Hopkins University, at the Bologna Center in Bologna, Italy; Rosary College, in Pius XII Institute in Florence, Italy; Colgate University, in the University of San Marcos, Lima, Peru; and the University of

Stockholm, Sweden, has a special graduate program for foreign students.

Graduate and Undergraduate Programs

For graduate and undergraduate students, Reid Hall, an agency of the American Association of University Women, has organized study at the University of Paris; and the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church in the United States has an organized program of foreign study.

Centers of Study Abroad

There are numerous Centers of Study Abroad, such as the one organized by Johns Hopkins University in Bologna, Italy, an American institution functioning as a branch of the School of Advanced International Studies of Johns Hopkins, which began operating in 1955. There are also the College d'Europe, Hamburg, Germany, and similar ones in Bruges, Belgium; Nancy, France; Turin, Italy; Vienna, Austria; Saarbrücken, The Saar; Strasbourg, France; The European Forum of Alpbach, Austria, and several in Paris, France.

Special Programs For the Study of Languages

For students who wish to improve their knowledge of languages, the following special centers have been organized:

French: at the Universities of Aix-Marseille (at Nice), Bordeaux, Grenoble, Lyon, Montpellier, Nancy, Paris, and Poitiers (at Tours).

German: at the Universities of Mainz and Munich, and the Interpreters Institute of the University of Heidelberg.

Italian: the Universities of Perugia, Florence, Siena, and the Society of Dante Alighieri, Rome.

Government Programs

Government International exchange of students operates under:

1. Public Law 402, passed by the 80th Congress, officially designated as the Information and Educational Exchange Act of 1948, and commonly known as the Smith-Mundt Act.
2. The Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations, commonly known as the Buenos Aires Convention.
3. Public Law 584, passed by the 79th Congress, and known as the Fulbright Act, amended by Public Law 400, 82nd Congress, known as the Mutual Security Act of 1952.
4. Public Law 265, passed by the 81st Congress, providing for a special arrangement for educational exchanges with Thailand.

5. The Annual Appropriations Act for the Department of State, which contains authorization of dollar funds to be expended for exchanges with Germany and Austria.

The actual working administration of these laws is now under the agency known as the International Educational Exchange Service (I.E.S.), while the "technical assistance" program is under the International Cooperation Administration (I.C.A.), formerly known as the Foreign Operations Administration (F.O.A.). Both are under the supervision of the State Department. This program of exchanges began in 1938 with the Buenos Aires Convention between the United States and the other American republics, but now covers most of the free world. Candidates are chosen on their ability to promote the objectives of the program: to develop an understanding of the people to be visited, and to convey this understanding to their fellow-citizens on their return to the United States. More specifically, the government requires United States citizenship, emotional maturity, an interest in other cultures and peoples, ability to adapt to different and often difficult living conditions, professional and scholarly competence, good health, and evidence of the possession of a definite objective that will benefit the country. Most government grants are awarded on a competitive basis, with veterans being given certain advantages. In view of these stipulations it is evident that most of the students going abroad on these programs will be graduate students. The procedure for making application is very clearly spelled out, and is done, for those who are enrolled in a college or university, through a specially designated faculty adviser, and for those not so enrolled, through the Institute of International Education. The screening procedure is a very thorough one, and the final selections are made by the Board of Foreign Scholarships, which is composed of ten leading American educators and educational administrators appointed by the President of the United States. The Department of State provides the secretariat for this Board and co-ordinates the work of screening agencies and the agencies abroad concerned in the project.

The Fulbright program is now operative with Australia, Austria, Belgium and Luxembourg, Burma, Ceylon (travel grants only), Chile, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, India, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Philippines, and the United Kingdom.

Applications under the Buenos Aires Convention are made directly

to the Institute of International Education. The government of the country to which the applicant is to go makes the final decision. Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, and Venezuela take part in this program.

Besides these government grants, there are the following additional possibilities:

1. To teach in an elementary or secondary school abroad (under the Fulbright and Smith-Mundt Acts).
2. To lecture or teach in a university abroad (under the Fulbright and Smith-Mundt Acts, and special exchange programs for Germany and Austria).
3. To do advanced research abroad (under the Fulbright Act).
4. To be a consultant or public lecturer abroad (under the Smith-Mundt Act, and under special programs involving Germany and Finland).
5. Travel grants available under the Fulbright Act, which cover travel expense only, and are meant to supplement grants made by the governments of Ceylon, Denmark, France, Italy, Netherlands, and Sweden.

Rhodes Scholarships

There are 32 of these available in the United States. Each is operative for two years with possible renewal for a third year. They are open to men on a competitive basis. At present they pay \$1,400 a year. The American Secretary of the Rhodes Scholarships is located at Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pennsylvania. Those who receive Rhodes Scholarships study at Oxford, England.

Ford Foundation Scholarships

These are for graduate or postdoctoral work in the sciences or the humanities, for 1956-57 in Africa, Asia, the Near East, the Soviet Union, and Eastern Europe, granted by the Ford Foundation, Foreign Area Fellowship Programs.

Marshall Scholarships

Twelve scholarships are available annually to United States students for study at any university in the United Kingdom for the study of any subject which will lead to a British degree after two years. The period of the scholarships may by special action be ex-

tended to three years. Application is made to the Ambassador for the United Kingdom, Washington, D.C.

Mexican Scholarships

The Mexican government will offer 16 awards for undergraduate or graduate study in Mexico, beginning in 1956-57. The Institute of International Education will receive the applications for these awards.

N.A.T.O. (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) Fellowships

These are new grants, to be initiated in 1956 on a graduate basis. Candidates must be nationals of one of the N.A.T.O. member states, and must undertake to pursue their studies in one or more of the N.A.T.O. member countries. The program will be implemented by the Institute of International Education.

Fund for Study in Denmark

A \$200,000 fund has been announced in honor of the Danish Ambassador to the United States. It is a gift from a group of Americans of Danish descent, to be used for the exchange of students, fellows, and trainees, and will be implemented by the Institute of International Education.

Guggenheim Fellowships

These are awarded not to students, but to scholars who are already established in their professions, and therefore are merely mentioned here. The Institute of International Education is the source of further information concerning them.

Special Overseas Education for Service Men

This is, of course, a very specialized form of educational program. The University of Maryland has the most extensive project, reaching practically around the world. About 5,500 students are enrolled each academic year at the various military bases.

Summer Study Abroad

This has become a very extensive and popular activity on the part of United States students. Institutions in many countries, including Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Eire, England, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland,

Greece, Canada, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Mexico, Peru, and Lebanon, have organized special summer sessions for American students. It should be noted, however, that, being especially for American students, the work is not necessarily on the same level as the work in the regular sessions of these universities.

The so-called S.P.A.N. Project (Student Project for Amity among Nations) operates in Minnesota. At present eight institutions are actively associated with it: Augsburg, Carleton, Gustavus Adolphus, Hamline, Macalester, St. Olaf, St. Thomas, and the University of Minnesota. The St. Cloud Teachers College formerly participated in it, but has not been active in it for the past two years. Each group consists of from 5 to 18 students, with an average of 10-12, carefully chosen by the respective colleges, with the final selection being made by an intercollegiate committee. The students must be persons of ability scholastically, and with appropriate personalities for the tasks they undertake, one of the most important being interviewing "key personalities" in the countries to which they go. They receive careful briefing in the language of the country, and in its culture. Each student prepares a research project and writes a report on his activities. He also agrees to speak to interested groups on his return, the proceeds from which he contributes to SPAN as a means of helping to finance the next group. The leaders are also carefully chosen from the faculties of the participating institutions. They are placed on the institution's payroll as summer session instructors. For 1956 the countries to be visited are: Great Britain, Venezuela, Japan, Greece, Turkey, and the Benelux Countries (Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg). Six quarter credits are given at the University of Minnesota in the course entitled General Studies 161, Seminar for Foreign Study I, and six for course 162.

The University of Minnesota also offers summer travel and study through a course described in its bulletin as Art 59: a course in European art organized by the Art Department and the University Summer Session. Such art centers as Paris, Rome, Venice, Salzburg, Munich, and Amsterdam are visited. It offers five university credits. The cost, including course fee, transportation, hotel accommodations, breakfasts, and dinners has been \$973.

Great impetus has been given this movement by various agencies not connected with any college or university which advertise travel and study abroad. Some of the most important of these are The

University Travel Company, Harvard Square, Cambridge, Massachusetts; Consolidated Tours, Inc., 250 West 57 St., New York 19; American Youth Abroad, a subsidiary of Americans Abroad. The latter is an associate member of the Council on Student Travel, 179 Broadway, New York 7, and is in close contact with all companies offering students low cost transportation. Programs range from \$295 to \$1,045, and include from three to nine weeks in Europe. Its national headquarters are at 317 Fourteenth Avenue S.E., Minneapolis. The Council on Student Travel is a co-ordinating agency for educational and religious agencies, best known for the ships it has made available each summer since 1947. It also has become an information center, advising students about opportunities in the field of student travel. It co-operates with the American Friends Service Committee, American Youth Hostels, Bureau of University Travel, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Committee on Friendly Relations among Foreign Students, and others. It is described in considerable detail in the Bulletin of the International Association of Universities, #2, May, 1954.

Travel Aids

Aside from the agencies noted above, which combine study and travel, there are the purely commercial agencies, such as airline and steamship companies which give reduced rates to students and encourage travel in that way. For airline travel, the National Student Association Travel Department, 48 West 48 St., New York, makes arrangements for student flights.

Ships are specially chartered by the Council on Student Travel mentioned above, and the Netherlands Office for Foreign Student Relations, 29 Broadway, New York 5.

The British Travel Association, 336 Madison Ave., New York, helps in connection with transportation to Great Britain.

Eleven countries participate in the use of travel coupons, which are issued by UNESCO. Purchasers pay for them in their own country with the currency of that country, and cash them abroad for the currency of the country they are visiting. The participating countries are: Cambodia, Canada, France, Israel, Laos, the Netherlands, Salvador, Switzerland, the United States, Uruguay, and Viet-Nam. They operate like travelers' checks.

III

In connection with these study-travel programs there are several important problems which can be summarized under three headings: language, the accrediting of institutions in which the study is done, and the conversion of the work done abroad into terms of our "credits."

The language problem can be a serious handicap to the implementation of the objective of foreign travel-study. Miss Helen C. White of the University of Wisconsin, in the March issue of the Bulletin of the Institute of International Education expresses it in this way: "It is a pity that more students do not realize that foreign languages are the key to a very much wider world. There is something sentimental about the internationalism of a young man or woman who would love to promote international understanding but hasn't dreamed of learning the language of even one of the peoples with whom he would like to communicate. If the current movement to get foreign languages into the elementary schools keeps its present momentum, then there is a fair chance that before very long we shall have a considerable number of students coming to our colleges and universities in possession of at least one foreign language and able to use it to acquire an adequate background in the culture, past and present, of one country, at least. With such a preparation, a year of study abroad might be the foundation of a real lifework of furthering international understanding in any one of a variety of the walks of the common human life. Certainly with the present responsibilities of our country, we Americans can well use all the knowledge and understanding of the world we can come by."

And as one exchange teacher put it: "Do you really think that you, as one of the foremost powers of the world can afford this 'Iron Curtain' of language between you and other nations? And as far as having access to the hidden treasures in the cultures of other nations—this is often possible only by means of their language. You stay poorer if you have no way to them."

Educators are agreeing more and more that not only is the knowledge of foreign languages essential in our day, but with Montaigne, four centuries ago, that these must be acquired early, before "the tongue will grow too stiff to bend."

No single cause of failure is more frequently found among the

holders of international awards than their inability to understand or to express themselves in the languages of the countries where they are studying. And it is undesirable, according to those in charge of administering the programs, that the first two or three or more months abroad should be spent in learning the language of instruction. The fallacy that the English language will suffice anywhere, even in Europe, is now definitely exploded; and with the increase of the interchange of students the study of foreign languages in our schools is becoming essential.

The problem of accrediting work done abroad is not only important but difficult. Between 1946 and 1951, 102 American colleges and universities sponsored travel courses granting academic credit as a part of their summer school programs. A survey conducted by Pan American World Airways during the summer of 1951 showed that 11.3% of the institutions of higher learning in the United States granted academic credit in connection with study tours, and 28.6% offered professional recognition for educational travel. There is evidence, therefore, that institutions regard travel-study as beneficial and worthy of recognition.

Some studies lend themselves better than others to the study-tour: art history, contemporary art, literature, music, government, geography, geology, anthropology, and especially comparative education. Some of the criteria for an effective study tour include good travel arrangements, comprehensive pre- and post-tour orientation with good instructional materials, and a good tour director. It has been suggested that the Council on Educational Travel should undertake the accrediting of college study tours. Tours which only emphasize the vacation aspects of a summer abroad should not carry promise of academic credit. Credit should be earned through an organized study program including written work, and should not be based on mere participation and impressions.

At present there is no agreement among institutions as to policy, standards, credit hours, course requirements, and other administrative procedures. However, if credit is to be given for achievement, we cannot adhere to the traditional definition of recognizing pure scholarship alone. "Just as the laboratory and field work have become coordinated, the seminar and the workshop and the lecture, discussion with the clinic, the study-tour can come to be recognized as a legitimate means of learning." So says William Reitz, of Wayne Univer-

sity in *School and Society* for August 6, 1955. Care must be exercised in every case, and every program must be carefully scrutinized so that the program will not deteriorate into a "racket" on the part of "enterprising" agencies to exploit unsuspecting victims.

The problem of credit evaluation for work done abroad is, of course, always with us. We are all no doubt familiar with the kind of statement the student who has been at a foreign institution usually brings with him, a certification reading somewhat as follows: "I hereby state that Mr. John Doe has studied in my course in European Civilization during the summer of 1955, and took part in the activities of the class with great profit (or to my satisfaction)"—signed by the instructor in the course. This is natural, in view of the fact that the credit system does not exist abroad, and that the student is supposed to make use of the knowledge he has gained from the work of a certain class only insofar as it will contribute to his ability to pass his examinations at the end of four or more years when he presents himself as a candidate for a degree. But naturally this cannot satisfy us, since such a statement obviously cannot be translated into terms of our credits. Under pressure, and if arrangements are made beforehand, many European institutions will now give an American student an examination at the end of a course, and assign him a mark or grade. They will even specify in exact terms how much class time was devoted to the work. Unless he can present such a document I see no way of allowing him credit except by an examination after his return.

This problem does not arise, of course, when the work is conducted under the auspices of an institution in the United States.

IV

While we know rather accurately the number of foreign students who are in this country from abroad, this cannot be said of the reverse. The Institute of International Education in its last report states that it intends to add this undertaking to the many it already has, so that in the future, we may expect to have more accurate data with respect to it. However, the following may be of interest: In 1953-54 more than 17,000 students travelled from here to other countries, taking advantage of the opportunities offered by travel bureaus; and 3,500 more crossed the Atlantic in boats and planes chartered by student associations. In 1954 over 30,000 passports were

issued by the State Department to college students. From personal observation I know that the flow of student travel from this country abroad has increased tremendously within the past few years.

V

The Institution of International Education publishes a large number of pamphlets and brochures. First of all, there is the *News Bulletin* of the organization. It carries information about every country in the world, and is most readable as far as format is concerned. The I.I.E. also publishes *U.S. Government Grants; Foreign Study Grants; Group Study Abroad; Summer Study Abroad*; a series of brochures on study in various countries, such as *Study in Australia, Study in Austria, Study in Denmark and Iceland*, in Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, and Spain. *Study in France*, a similar publication, is published by the Office of the French Cultural Counsellor, 972 5th Avenue, N.Y., and one on *Study in Great Britain* by the British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. These are invaluable for giving students who ask about going abroad to any of these countries, the preliminary information they want as to study and living conditions. And finally the I.I.E. has just published an inclusive volume entitled *Handbook on International Study*, which is a positive gold mine for anyone thinking of studying in a country other than his own. Its *Open Doors* and *Annual Report* are also revealing in this connection.

The Department of State publishes *Educational Exchange Grants*, available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

UNESCO publishes *Study Abroad*, listing over 45,000 grants in every country and for every purpose, as well as a *Vacation Study Supplement* available through the Columbia University Press, New York. The National Student Association publishes *Work, Study, Travel Abroad*.

Mention should also be made of the *Bulletin of the International Association of Universities*, published quarterly. This organization has also published an *International List of Universities*, a *World Directory of Medical Schools*, and a brochure on *University Degree Systems*, and is in process of publishing a *World Directory of Agricultural Education*. The Secretary General of the International As-

sociation of Universities is H. M. R. Keyes, 19 Avenue Kleber, Paris XII, France.

An announcement has just been made that the International Student Conference which met in Birmingham, England, last summer issued identity cards for students, entitling them to concessions in foreign countries. It also issued a handbook designed to help students who wish to travel on their own rather than as part of a group, which gives details of places where students can stay in Europe and a list of recommended places to eat, and notes any special facilities available to students.

I have listed only the most obvious sources of information on study abroad. A detailed bibliography will be found in the I.I.E.'s Handbook, *Higher Education*, published by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, and available through the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., at 75¢ a year. It carries announcements of publications as they become available. There is actually no reason why those interested in exploring the possibilities of studying in another country should not find means of orienting themselves thoroughly in the conditions surrounding such an undertaking.

A Re-evaluation of Placement Services

H. D. RICHARDSON AND ROBERT F. MENKE

INSTITUTIONS of higher education are expanding and will continue to expand, particularly after the next three or four years when the so-called "war babies" reach college age. This increase and its resultant problems have many university and college officials re-evaluating present organization and administration for improved efficiency and effectiveness. College administrators in institutions which have changed from single to multiple-purpose institutions are particularly aware of the need for re-evaluation as these schools are faced not only with the enrollment problem, but with the necessity for providing new and expanded services.

One of the areas of administrative organization affected by this expansion and changing of purposes has been placement services. Placement services, like the rest of the institution, have experienced a surge of growth and development which has emphasized the need for clarification of placement relationships with the academic and student personnel programs of the institution.

Historically, placement services were generally regarded as a minor administrative responsibility, and in the main were limited in scope to the type of service offered and clientele served. As institutions have grown, authority and responsibility have broadened until placement is receiving increasingly more attention as a logical and central point of contact between the institution, the student, and the employment world.

Until the popular upsurge of the "student personnel program" and "point of view" most placement services were rather closely articulated with the academic program. This unity with the academic program was especially true of those placement services that catered to a particular group of graduating students. Examples of these specialized placement services can still be found in some multiple purpose institutions. In most instances the placement services were under the supervision of the dean of the individual college, and placement was geared directly to the particular college's academic program.

Gradually placement has undertaken to provide placement services to all graduates of the entire institution. Research and observation of higher institutions has indicated that the trend toward centralization has become more pronounced every year. With this move

toward centralization, there has been a tendency on the part of student personnel experts to incorporate placement services as part and parcel of the student personnel program. This incorporation has created, in many institutions, a great deal of understandable apprehension on the part of individuals who are directly responsible for placement services. These misgivings are in a large part due to the past history of close co-operation with the academic program and the realization that almost every act of placement is inevitably connected somewhere or in some manner with the academic program.

In order to understand the picture clearly, it is essential that a brief examination of placement responsibility be undertaken. The following services are generally considered to be the primary responsibility of placement:

A. Career Placement Counseling.

1. Educational—vocational data and analysis available for the student, alumni, and the institution.
2. Placement interviewing and counseling for the registrant, to include:
 - a. Comprehensive understanding of the registrant's background, training, experiences, and goals.
 - b. Helping registrant evaluate information concerning immediate and primary job opportunities with his qualifications.
 - c. Helping registrant evaluate living-working conditions and employment practices.
 - d. Developing with the registrant the building of his credentials.
 - e. Discussion with the registrant of various items such as ethics, techniques of securing a position, and other helpful methods in managing a job campaign.

B. Employer Relations.

1. Alerting prospective employers to registrants trained by the institution.
2. Determining employer specifications, working conditions, opportunities for advancement, financial remuneration, etc.
3. Notification, arranging of interviews, and providing information regarding each registrant.
4. Counseling with employer regarding final selection in light of job specifications and qualifications of registrants.

C. Follow-up Services.

1. For the registrant by providing in-service help.
2. To aid the employer by helping registrant.
3. For the institution in the development of new job opportunities and in evaluating registrants in the field.

It is difficult to separate each responsibility and the resultant functions of placement exclusively from either the student personnel program or the academic program, but it is interesting to evaluate placement responsibilities and functions with respect to the primary contribution and value received from each of these programs. A basic assumption is that both the student personnel program and the academic program can and should be co-ordinated toward the common goals of the institution. The goals are the same for both programs; but it is also true that one program can contribute more extensively to placement, if effectively organized, than the other. Conversely, placement has more to offer one program than the other.

As was noted in the outline, the first responsibility of placement, career placement counseling, is concerned primarily with educational-vocational data and analysis for students, alumni, and the institution. In order to carry out this function, there must be a two-way line of communication between the academic program and placement. This communication brings to the academic program, through placement, some of the realistic educational-vocational requirements as found in the everyday work world. This type of information can constantly be used in the academic program in evaluating the educational offering and the goals of the entire college. Educational-vocational information is also available to placement and in turn is at the disposal of the student when decisions are to be made regarding life career goals. These data and analyses channeled back to the institution and student serve to emphasize the responsibility institutions of higher education have in preparing the individual to meet the requirements of the work world and in providing the best prepared person for the varied careers available. Thus, for the employment world the academic program is one of extreme importance for placement and the student.

It seems logical then that placement should be, by organization, closely related to the academic program of the institution. Through this structure, placement will have an opportunity to work with the head of the total academic program, the deans, the academic advisers, and the individual faculty members, in establishing the vital two-way channel of communication.

Placement interviewing and counseling with the student has even a closer relationship with the academic program, as a more comprehensive understanding of the student's training, experiences, and

goals are made possible through the medium of the academic adviser. Here also placement coupled with the judgment of the academic adviser can help evaluate, with the student, his qualifications for job opportunities and the conditions surrounding the various jobs. Placement can also help create with and for the registrant the necessary credentials and helpful techniques vital to successful job applications. This work with the student is one of the crucial points in placement. For here placement becomes the professional confidant of the student, and through this process better overall placement is achieved.

Employer relations and demands likewise dovetail with the educational-vocational work of placement. Employers demand evaluations of prospective employees by faculty members of the institution. Almost without exception employers are most interested in both written and verbal recommendations of faculty members, which again necessitates a close relationship between the faculty involved in the academic program and placement.

Everyone connected with placement must not only be able to speak intelligently about the academic program, but also to have knowledge of the various curriculums and future plans of each department. Knowledge of these items cannot be obtained without a close liaison between placement and the academic program. Placement must also be able to channel back to the academic program information regarding the desired preparation for these jobs. Any good salesman knows that in order to sell a product, knowledge of what makes the product desirable is essential.

Follow-up services again are definitely coupled with the academic program. First, placement and those involved in the academic program are interested in knowing about the success of their product. The use of faculty for follow-up helps keep the instructional program alive and alert. Secondly, they help the student understand that the institution is interested in his success and adjustment. Thirdly, they help the employer by providing expert assistance to the new employee and at the same time, provide a better understanding of the mutual problems involved in industry and higher institutions.

It is evident that the major responsibilities of placement are essentially and primarily associated with the academic program through career placement counseling, employer relations, and follow-up services. In other words placement is a vital, realistic, and important service agency to the academic program.

Editorial Comment

H. L. M.

A GREAT teacher died last January. It seems unlikely that Henry Mencken ever thought of himself as a teacher: he considered himself a journalist and editor. But those of us who were youngsters in the twenties can remember how much we learned from him—if we wanted to. He shocked our elders, largely because he refused to accept shams and pretense at face value; and the twenties had their share of shams and pretense. Not only did he refuse to accept them: he unloosed the miracle of his style on them, and made it obvious to all who could read just what they were. To those who thrived on shams and pretense, and those who found it easiest to live with shams and pretense, Mencken was a man of sin.

Likewise he shocked those who had grown up to suppose that an artificial, imitative style is not only erudite but elegant. Mencken made it perfectly clear to a good many of us that any such style is merely pompous and pedantic. Of course, many of his readers failed to appreciate the fact that trying to write like Mencken is as absurd as trying to write like Pater, and we had a crop of crudities that must simply be overlooked as the enthusiasm of youth.

Mencken taught the younger generation that a penny whistle is a penny whistle, no matter how inflated the one who blows it. He taught us how salutary it is to open stuffed shirts, puncture gasbags, and put the skids under men of distinction in pomposity. He taught us to catch out quacks, shysters, pulpiteers, smut-lovers, vote-getters, superior persons, pedants, artistic fakes, liars, frauds, hypocrites, and sounding brass. In doing so, he aroused the violent enmity of all such parasites—a vast number of enemies for one man to ignore. But Mencken showed how to ignore them—or, on occasion, to beat them at their own game, as he did in Boston.

He was accused, of course, of being simply a destroyer; but those who made that accusation failed to read him. He knew and lauded those who deserved praise. In 1928, for instance, he wrote one of the most penetratingly appreciative of all discussions of Franz Schubert—and in those days Schubert was not the well-known composer he is today. He knew good writing, whoever wrote it, and showed

his perspicacity as an editor: nobody has encouraged more capable young writers than Mencken.

Naturally, he made mistakes; and when he made them, he made huge ones. But he taught us what to do about mistakes, too, and about those who catch us off base. He had amazing prejudices, but never pretended that they were anything else. Such things were a part of his vast gusto, his love of living, his fascination with all that went on about him and those concerned in it. He showed us one vigorous way of living a full and happy life.

When prohibition, censorship of books and magazines, and so on, which he fought had slipped into history, he knew how to turn to other things. Some of those who remembered the crusader found that the older Mencken had mellowed. No doubt; but he had won his crusades. Then he turned to documenting what he had demonstrated over the years: the magnificence, the color, the vigor of American English.

In doing that, he taught us that it is possible to make a work of research a best-seller. *The American Language*, off to an exaggerated start in 1919, became in its last edition and its two *Supplements*, one of the most readable and one of the most useful products of erudition ever written. In the twenties, American language and American literature were matters for apology by schoolmasters and professors; when Mencken finished with them, they were a glory.

Mencken was rambunctious in writing; but in his personal dealings he was invariably courteous, considerate, sympathetic, and encouraging. As an editor, he kept no contributor waiting, either for decision or payment; and his rejections were often helpful suggestions that eventually paid off. He had time for youngsters, and friendly advice for them. He took time to talk with people. He answered his incredibly large correspondence. He was hospitable, genial, and amusing. He was an example of how a teacher may stimulate a neophyte.

Much that he wrote was ephemeral; but much remains, from which those who want to learn may learn much. But he will be read not for instruction, but for enjoyment: the instruction will filter through. Future younger generations—and older ones, too—may read him as they read Fielding, Mark Twain, Chaucer. He will encourage them to hate sham, defy hypocrisy, and love life.

S.A.N.

An Implicit Ideal

In a good deal of discussion of education today and in the future, there is a curious lack of consideration of final ends. We hear and read much about means, and we are told that certain professions and specialties face shortages of practitioners. We know that we need many more scientists and teachers, for instance, and we try to find means to attract young people into science and education, and to give them necessary training. We hear more and more about the liberal arts, without finding much agreement as to what the liberal arts are or what they may accomplish.

Nor is there much agreement on what we want them to accomplish. It should be helpful, therefore, to follow Dr. Farrell's suggestion in his article in this issue of the *Journal*, that the final end of education stated by Milton is as valid now as it was three hundred years ago. Milton called "a complete and generous education, that which fits a man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war."

That is far too big an order, say critics: Milton had in mind educating Miltons; or Milton had in mind producing a man of the Renaissance. Nobody can hope to reach that eminence! Still, a wise Yankee advised us that it is better to aim at the stars and land in the treetops than to aim at the treetops and land on a fence post.

Our fence posts seem cluttered. They remind us of those that Lewis Carroll's Ghost sang about:

Oh, when I was a little Ghost
A merry time had we!
Each seated on his favorite post,
We chumped and chawed the buttered toast
They gave us for our tea.

Our fence posts are occupied, and there is a tremendous chumping and chawing. We might set our sights higher.

At any rate, we might consider seriously one or two of the adjectives and adverbs Milton used, because we overlook them as a rule. We do not pretend to complete education. More unfortunately, perhaps, we have forgotten what Milton meant by "generous": it meant "exhibiting those qualities which are popularly regarded as belonging to high birth; noble; honorable," to use Webster's definition of an archaic use of the word (Shakespeare's and Milton's).

We try to fit a man to perform skillfully whatever he undertakes, and do a pretty good job of it; and in this country more than elsewhere we encourage just performance through education of all our people. We have, however, forgotten what "magnanimous" means. To return to Webster, we find that it means "great of mind; elevated in soul or in sentiment above what is low, mean, or ungenerous; of courageous spirit." The great men of our Republic were those who performed their offices magnanimously, those whose lives we keep constantly before our young people as examples of the American way.

Since we set such examples before our youth, it is hardly unreasonable to seek the means of enabling them to follow those examples. To be sure, we cannot hope to mass-produce George Washingtons or Thomas Jeffersons, any more than we can create Gibbsses or Steinmetzes in quantity; but we can encourage the exercise of such qualities as our heroes possessed—and by and large our heroes are an astonishingly magnanimous lot, compared with various and sundry heroes elsewhere.

We have made heroes of just, skillfull, and magnanimous men. We need to look neither to Milton nor to the Renaissance to find those we would emulate: Benjamin Franklin is sufficient all by himself. It is not unreasonable, therefore, to make every effort to inculcate on our young people such an education as will encourage them to follow our most illustrious men, at however great a distance.

The fact that we have long venerated those great men who made our way of life, shows that in our educational endeavors the ideal of Milton is implicit. It may be that all we have to do is insist that the ideal become explicit, and then shape our educational system to contribute to that final end. We should be able to follow when the leadership is so apparent.

S.A.N.

Meriting Their Respect Is The Answer

Do you depend on other officials to assure compliance with requests that originate in your office? (Are you, for example, one of the remaining few who report at our annual meetings that they get grades promptly because of a "no grades, no check" rule?) If that is your method of operation, change it, for as long as you have it you will be but a slave of your own making and unfit for a position of responsibility.

There will be co-operation if there is mutual respect, and that comes when you demonstrate that you understand that the job you have to do and the job others have to do are necessary and for the mutual advantage of all. There will be those who forget, but with adequate publicity the number will be surprisingly small, and a phone call to remind them will not be a thing to dread when there is respect. And you too might forget, and in that event, being one among many whose respect you merit will indeed be better than to be one at the mercy of many whose respect you have not gained.

R.E.M.

An Addition to Our One-Foot Shelf

Scheduled for distribution at our April meeting is *A Glossary of Terms Used by Registrars and Admissions Officers*. It consists of brief explanations and interpretations of 465 terms that are part of the everyday language of our work. Many of the explanations are accompanied by references to one or more of seventeen sources containing more detailed information. These references include all of our own publications. Most of these references you will have in your office.

For those in or preparing for our work or other college administrative positions, the Glossary will provide generally accepted definitions and will be a key to significant study materials. It will make it easier for us to study and evaluate any phase of our work.

This is the Association's first attempt to provide such a work. Your suggestions for improving it will be appreciated so that future revisions may make it a more useful and worth-while addition to our publications.

R.E.M.

Honorary Membership

1. Honorary membership in AACRAO is based primarily on conspicuous service to the Association. Length of membership, or regular attendance at annual meetings, do not of themselves constitute grounds for election to honorary membership.

2. Services to the Regional Associations are properly the concern of those associations and should be recognized by them rather than by AACRAO.

3. In general, honorary membership in AACRAO will be based upon one or both of the following considerations:

- a. Distinguished service as an officer, or chairman of an important committee, of the Association.
- b. Repeated and significant contributions in the form of active committee membership, participation in convention programs, publication in *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY*, or similar activities, coupled with reasonably regular convention attendance over a period of years.

4. It is recognized that most members of AACRAO contribute to its welfare, and when they retire they have the Association's respect and gratitude. Election to honorary membership, however, is a distinction reserved for those whose contributions to the Association are considered outstanding.

The commercial exhibit of office machines and equipment at our Forty-Second Annual Meeting promises to be larger and perhaps more diversified than in years past. We have been fortunate in being able to provide a reasonably large area for this important part of our conference. In view of the unprecedented demand for exhibit space, it is evident that manufacturers are becoming increasingly aware of our unique needs for equipment and have, therefore, given much thought on how to improve our operations through the use of their products.

Many of our old friends will be exhibiting, and you will also meet some newcomers in the exhibit area. Much progress has been made in the past year in the design of office equipment. Each delegate will, we are sure, find something that should enable him to do his job more efficiently or economically. We hope that during the conference everyone will pay at least one visit to the commercial exhibits area.

Book Reviews

W.G.B.

Richard Hofstadter and Walter P. Metzger, *The Development of Academic Freedom in the United States*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1955. Pp. xvi + 527. \$5.50.

This is a history of American university education with a twofold thesis: (1) that the American university has attained maturity and become a true university in so far as it has gradually separated itself from sectarian connections and religious restrictions on academic freedom; and (2) that the American university became truly scientific in proportion as it espoused the present-day theory of academic freedom formulated in 1915 by the American Association of University Professors. History with a thesis justifies itself only in so far as it takes into consideration all the facts and does not interpret facts from an *a priori* viewpoint.

Dr. Hofstadter presents the first thesis. "But the more enlightened college authorities could hardly help but learn one lesson: there were grave disadvantages for serious educational work in too intimate a sectarian connection." The growth of academic freedom in the European universities is presented as the heritage of the American colonial college. In Europe the major handicap to true university development and scientific advancement was sectarian religion. Both Protestantism and Catholicism hindered university education because of their religious dogmas. Protestantism was the occasion for the growth of academic freedom because it divided the Christian world, and the university was able to attain its freedom because the forces of the opposition were divided. The history of the growth of the American college from a religious seminary into a secular university is interestingly presented. Most of the examples of academic freedom are accounts of the endeavors of scholars to free themselves from the restrictions of college presidents and boards of trustees who were usually Protestant ministers. By the time of the Civil War, the colleges had attained to maturity; they were freed from sectarian control.

Dr. Metzger presents the growth of the American college from an institution the main objective of which was moral training into a university with a truly scientific ideal. Gradually, the American university professors came to realize that the true ideal of the university was not character formation but unhampered quest for truth. Science under the aspect of Darwinianism and the German ideal of scholarship with its emphasis on academic freedom are portrayed as the major forces which positively produced the great secular American university after it had been freed from the restrictions of sectarian religion. Dr. Metzger does not blame religion but only sectarian religion. Before the scientific ideal could be attained, the professors must defend academic freedom against the restrictions of

religious-minded people. The colleges which chose to espouse science and its necessary condition, academic freedom, became great universities. The others either dropped by the wayside or became unimportant.

This is an interesting and provocative history of American university education. Historically, the book seems to give a true account of the growth of the American secular university. The authors ignore entirely the American education which has been developed in church-related schools. In their eyes, these colleges or so-called universities cannot be true universities. It would be interesting to discover how many men who have been truly influential in university education and even in science were trained in church-affiliated colleges. To one who maintains that religious dogmas do not and cannot have intellectual content and that science is the only form of true knowledge, the growth of the American secular university is indeed a glorious history. To one who maintains that religious knowledge is true knowledge (as does the present reviewer) and that religious knowledge should have a central place in university education, this history of the change of the American religious college into a secular university is a tragedy, not only from a social viewpoint but from a strictly university viewpoint. The question is not so much the problem of academic freedom and the development of science, but the nature of human knowledge and the various kinds of knowledge.

Unfortunately, I believe that the authors have chosen cases where non-intellectual elements in religion were allowed to interfere with true intellectual developments in other intellectual fields. With the American religious diversity and the tendency of the nonintellectual tradition in religion to restrict a justified freedom of thought and research in the university, it is indeed difficult to formulate the place of religion in American universities. But the solution does not seem to be to exclude religion or build up an opposition between religion and university education. To many people the tragedy of America and of the American university is that we have not developed scholars with an intellectual approach to religion. Perhaps we have seen the reverse of religion suppressing science; we may have seen the history of science suppressing religion.

Every American religious educator could profit by this book. The authors present a real challenge to the religious educator.

REV. WILLIAM L. WADE, S.J., *Director*
Department of Philosophy
St. Louis University

Robert M. MacIver, *Academic Freedom in Our Time*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1955. Pp. xiv + 329. \$4.00.

"Academic freedom" is but one aspect of freedom itself, but it is worth specialized discussion for three reasons. First, it pertains to education; and

wise men from Aristotle to Holmes have reminded us that mankind can grow in wisdom only if the mind is free. Second, the fact that educators must earn a living creates a special employment relationship between administrator and teacher, requiring the fixing of limits to conduct and expression; upon where these limits are fixed depends the existence of the teacher's liberty. Third, there are always forces in the community inimical to freedom, and when these forces gain added strength in times of fear and tension, the colleges and universities are likely to be among their first intended victims.

All of these three matters, and more, are the subject of Professor MacIver's inclusive study. Especially he deals with the last two. The administrative organization of American universities and the job of the teacher are explored in relation to each other, and numerous examples are given of the strain imposed on both by the pressures of hysteria and hate.

With respect to a professor's duties and position, Dr. MacIver states and reiterates his own viewpoint. While I think it is sound as far as it goes, it does not go far enough. The professor, certainly, is committed to acquiring and communicating knowledge, as the author says. But unless one gives this phrase an extra-broad construction, it omits something vital. "Communicating knowledge" is not enough, at least at the levels of higher education. Surely, the college's job is not so much to transmit facts as to inspire and train the student to think for himself. A walking encyclopedia is not necessarily an educated man. This may seem like quibbling, but I don't think it is. A fact-factory is in no danger from anti-intellectual enemies. Only "dangerous thoughts" are under attack, and because its students are taught to think freely, and hence perhaps "dangerously," any good college is suspect.

The relationship between the teacher and the governing body of his university is a hard one to define. Professor MacIver says emphatically what it is not. It is not identical with the employer-employee relationship in industry. If a college administrator having an argument with his faculty wants to become really unpopular, let him refer to his difficulties as "labor troubles"! But if the professor is not an employee, what is he? Perhaps a possible answer, at least for the man with tenure, is that he is a scholar certified to the community, by his university, as fit in his special field to pursue the truth and to teach. Once he is so certified, the administrator's duty is to encourage him in his task, and to leave him free to perform it as he sees fit. Free, too, to do as he likes and say what he wants in areas to which the certificate does not run. Only for gross dereliction or malfeasance should the certificate be revoked.

Where, then, draw the line? Is it "malfeasance" to plead the Fifth Amendment? Or does such a plea, as at Harvard, merely require a re-

examination of the professor's qualifications and conduct? Should the certificate be withdrawn if the professor turns out to be a Communist, or an ex-Communist? Dr. MacIver deals with this last question at great length. He finds that being a Communist is a thoroughly bad thing. He argues convincingly, as have others before him, that for a university to engage in a red-hunt is utterly destructive, more harmful by far than the presence of a Communist on the faculty. He seems to be stating the case for the position which seems so inconsistent but actually makes considerable sense, "I wouldn't hire a Red but I wouldn't fire one already here, if he does his work satisfactorily." Rather surprisingly, however, Dr. MacIver—at least as I understand him—ends up by opposing the use of this particular "color line" in both firing *and* hiring.

This book, liberally sprinkled with examples of battles—too often losing battles—for academic freedom, is a good reminder of the vital importance of the problems and the continuing danger that they will be solved by the powers of darkness, regardless of the decline of McCarthy. Unfortunately, it is so long, discursive, and oddly undramatic that it may have less impact than its theme deserves. A writer of an explosively controversial subject can most effectively approach it either as an impartial, scientific analyst or as an eloquent advocate. Professor MacIver does not enter on this battlefield unopinionated and dispassionate—what decent professor could?—but neither is he eloquent. He does, however, give us a temperate and experienced scholar's carefully-reasoned, informative, and thoughtful defense of a standard to which, if the twin lights of learning and liberty are to remain undimmed, the wise and honest must repair.

THOMAS H. ELIOT, *Chairman*
Department of Political Science
Washington University

E. Merrill Root, *Collectivism On The Campus*. New York: The Devin-Adair Company, 1955. Pp. xii + 403. \$5.00.

Here is a crusading book by a professor of English at Earlham College. He is concerned about the "war for the mind in American Colleges" between "collectivism and individualism." Lined up on one side, according to Professor Root, are Communists, "fellow travelers," "dupes," and "state liberals"; on the other side "radical conservatives," "true liberals," "individualists," and "men of God." He fears that this war is going against the side of righteousness; that even the traditions of democracy and Christianity are falling before the waves of Marxism, materialism, and the welfare state. The media of communication are "monopolized by the collectivist left," while the apostles of rugged individualism flee from persecution and are silent. In fact, the thing has gone so far that "no debate can

take place until the extremes of collectivism . . . are repudiated."

The story goes something like this. Communists have been infiltrating our colleges and universities for about twenty-five years. They have been aided and abetted by fellow travelers and dupes, making common cause with statists and other subversive elements. Meanwhile, university presidents stand idly by, naïve and ignorant, while the machinations of shrewd collectivists sweep American Youth into the abyss.

Professor Root's documentation is impressive. He quotes the House Committee on Un-American Activities, the *Boston Post*, the Broyles Commission in Illinois, *U.S. News and World Report*, Congressional Report on *Subversive Influence in the Educational Process*, letters, speeches, leaflets, and many others. It may be charged that he does not always evaluate his data with sufficient care, that he sometimes fails to discriminate between accusation and evidence. Nevertheless, he seems to have established some facts.

There really have been a few card-carrying members of the Communist party on some university faculties. Their numbers were probably greatest during the depression of the 1930's, but they were never more than a fraction of one per cent. In addition, there have been "fellow travelers"—those "who sympathize with the Party's aims and serve the Party's purposes without actually holding a Party card." Then there have been "dupes," "neutralists," or "soft thinkers," who were taken in by various devices and unwittingly serve the Communist cause. Finally, there are many "state liberals," who, according to Professor Root, "though not Communists by allegiance or intention, do seek essentially the same ends by different, but milder, means." They support government control of credit to minimize fluctuations of the business cycle, regulation of public utilities in the interest of consumers, conservation of natural resources, old age and survivors' insurance, workmen's compensation, aid to dependent children, fair employment practice commissions, UNESCO. They decline to believe that this is the best of all possible worlds and teach their students to ask questions about the *status quo*. All these together—Communists, fellow travelers, dupes, and state liberals—have undermined the very foundations of American life. So says Professor Root.

But let us examine his case a little more carefully. Communists and fellow travelers, as he defines them, may be classed together as men who rigidly follow a party line. But men who join an organization which has some beliefs or objectives which happen to resemble those of Communists, or a group which is, unknown to them, already controlled by Communists or on the way to such capture—such men are very different, particularly when, after discovering the facts, they repudiate Communism. An even greater error is committed when Professor Root puts into the same category a large number of teachers and others who concern

themselves with social action on behalf of the underprivileged. Such lack of discrimination is no credit to an American man of letters.

Behold the lengths to which our crusader goes. He imputes some blame for the situation he deplores on the ignorance and naïveté of university presidents like Eisenhower, Sproul, Wriston, Pusey, and Hutchins. Along with alleged Communists, he lists as fellow collectivists P. A. Samuelson (author of an economics text highly praised by *Fortune* magazine), G. Bromley Oxnam (Bishop of the Methodist Church), Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr. (eminent historian), Robert S. Lynd (author of *Middletown*). Professor Root calls the *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences* a propaganda document. He praises the "scholarly" works of A. H. Hobbs, George Sokolsky, and William F. Buckley, Jr. He views with alarm universities like Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Brown, California, and Chicago. He finds great merit in Harding College, Cedarville Baptist College, and Bloomfield College and Seminary.

But from the standpoint of scholarship there is something still more serious about Professor Root's book. His sampling is atrocious. He selects the cases he likes and ignores those he would rather not use. He makes no attempt to select a representative sample of institutions or professors. His data are chiefly from secondary, and often prejudiced, sources.

In his concern over "the battle for the mind in American colleges" involving various outside influences, he neglects to mention the active efforts of public utilities, chambers of commerce, trade unions, farm organizations, veterans' organizations, and churches.

An issue which Professor Root ignores almost completely is that between indoctrination and impartial objective study of problems affecting human welfare. However, once or twice he speaks of "hearing both sides" and several times refers vaguely to "neutralism."

Underlying the whole book is a total failure to understand the relativity of freedom and control. He apparently forgets—if he ever knew—that there is no human society without controls and that there is no completely free individual. The issue is not society *versus* the individual, but the relations between individuals *in* society. When we recognize what controls operate in what ways and under what conditions; when we realize how individuals share with their fellows the making of decisions and the operation of social controls, then we will be ready to redefine the problem so crudely stated by Professor Root. The new formulation will be in terms of social participation and personal development in a changing social order.

STUART A. QUEEN, *Chairman*
Department of Sociology and Anthropology
Washington University

Clark Spurlock, *Education and the Supreme Court*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1955. Pp. 252. \$3.75.

The reverberation of two events of the preceding year, the Supreme Court ruling on desegregation and the unprecedented presidential conference on education, will echo for many years. The recent efforts to circumvent the former and the numerous pledges of federal aid by both parties concerning the latter mean that both problems will have to undergo the searching scrutiny of the nation's highest court. Combine these elements with the fact that the educational system acts as a quasi-legislative body, then it is quite evident that the Supreme Court will play an even more significant role in education's future.

Professor Spurlock has competently filled a previous academic vacuum by providing the reader with an excellent survey of the juridical problems of education. He has conveniently organized the book into three sections: (1) state and federal problems, (2) human rights, (3) issues connected with the Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments. Also treated are a host of subtopics, including the constitutionality of such varied legal items as: monetary concessions to religious schools, a will excluding clerics from religious teaching, military training in state universities, flag salute requirements, "released time" for religious instruction, Bible reading, loyalty tests, and motion picture censorship.

Despite the general excellence of the work there are, however, several limiting factors. First, his historical treatment contains several loose generalizations. To cite one example, his laudatory comments on the educational program of the Radical Republicans require a great deal of qualification. Second, the author makes only a superficial effort at interweaving the court decisions with the changing pattern of American life. Third, no mention is made of the inner ideological struggle within the Supreme Court between the "activists" (advocating a broad moral and social interpretation not necessarily based on legal precedent) led by Mr. Justice Black, and the "passivists" (advocating a strict legal interpretation regardless of their own personal or moral ideas) led by Mr. Justice Frankfurter. A discussion of these different legal approaches might have shed greater illumination on many of the decisions. Finally, the mechanics of the book leave a great deal to be desired. An annoying system of documentation and lack of an index depreciate greatly the intrinsic value of the book.

In the main, however, these criticisms become shadowy when compared to the substantive quality of the work. As a pioneering effort Professor Spurlock has made a notable scholarly contribution which merits the consideration of anyone interested in the future problems of education.

JOHN E. FLAHERTY, *Chairman*
Department of Social Sciences
Pace College

Edward Charnwood Cieslak, *The Foreign Student in American Colleges: A Survey and Evaluation of Administrative Problems and Practices*. Detroit: Wayne University Press, 1955. Pp. x + 175. \$5.00.

The increased enrollment of foreign students in educational institutions in the United States has made all publications that have to do with them of interest to admissions officers, foreign student advisers, administrative officials of colleges and universities, and all others who are concerned with their problems. The author has brought together in some detail various important studies and various statistical reports that have been published on such problems.

The "Historical Background" includes a review of the history of the foreign student population from the earliest times to the present and shows the shift of this student population from the universities of the Continent, especially from the German universities, to those in the United States. The author also covers briefly the history and establishment of the various private organizations that have to do with the foreign student and outlines the services available through such organizations as the Committee on Friendly Relations Among Foreign Students, the Institute of International Education, the National Association of Foreign Student Advisers, and the Division of International Educational Relations of the Office of Education.

The author's purpose is "to ascertain the prevailing problems and policies respecting foreign students in America from the point of view not only of collegiate institutions, but also from that of the students themselves." This aim was accomplished by the use of two questionnaires, one for collegiate institutions and one for students. As an admissions officer dealing with foreign students it is clear that he is alert to all the problems involved, including problems of policy administration, and the evaluation of student credentials.

In the thirty-eight tables included in this volume the author depicts the foreign student in a college or university and all the situations in which he is involved. The tables cover data on preadmission practices, scholarship and financial aid, housing, and health, to mention but a few examples. In addition to these comprehensive statistical tables the author has included pertinent comments on each item of the questionnaire as presented by the various institutions.

Some of the practices reported in this volume on the evaluation of records may be a bit startling even to seasoned admissions officers, but it must be remembered that Dr. Cieslak is recording these practices as they exist in some colleges or universities in the United States. It must be remembered also that these items are still much debated among admissions officers.

Dr. Cieslak decries the fact that evaluative studies which could lead the way to improvement in our dealings with foreign students are so few. It is unfortunate that he finds it necessary to emphasize the heavy responsibility of the admissions officer to make sure that an applicant is qualified scholastically and ready to profit otherwise from educational experience in a college or university in the United States.

In the "Conclusions and Recommendations" the author points out in succinct form his findings and includes specific recommendations for future study and research. The bibliography is particularly comprehensive.

Any administrative officer charged with the admission or counseling of foreign students will find in this volume an abundance of background information to help him improve his procedures in dealing with the complexities involved in the admission and counseling of foreign students.

CATHERINE R. RICH, *Registrar*
The Catholic University of America

1955 Handbook on International Study. New York: Institute of International Education, 1955. Pp. viii + 350. \$3.00.

For years college administrators, and especially advisers to foreign students and counselors of those contemplating study abroad, have longed for a single volume that would give an over-all picture of the opportunities for study in another land and also, one of study opportunities in our own colleges and universities. The volume under review seems to be by far the best answer to this particular prayer that has so far appeared. This is not said in disparagement of the excellent separate studies that have appeared on various aspects of the problem of international education, for they have served well and still serve a useful purpose.

The subtitle of the book is doubtless more indicative of its scope and purpose than the one that appears on the cover. It is "A Guide for Foreign Students on Study in the United States and for U. S. Students on Study Abroad." This is what the book is—a large order for any book, but one that is well filled.

A concise *Foreword* by Kenneth Holland states the *raison d'être* of the book, and the section on *Acknowledgments* is largely a listing of the many doors at which the compilers of the book knocked in the search for reliable materials and competent help. This list of *Acknowledgments* gives an idea of the tremendous amount of work that went into the book, and best of all, lets us know that we can expect other and better editions of the *Handbook on International Study* in future years. The "other" I do not question, but the "better" I am inclined to think we should take in the sense that succeeding editions will be up-to-the-minute just as this one is. That is all we have the right to expect.

The *Table of Contents* is an informing one. The titles of the eight information-packed chapters give a clear idea of the book's content, scope, and purpose. The titles are as follows: *Student Exchange and the United States*, *Education in the United States*, *Education Abroad*, *International Study Awards*, *Summer Opportunities*, *Government Regulations*, *Organizations Serving Exchange Students and Visitors*, and *Research in the Field of International Education*.

The *Appendix* contains a tremendous amount of reliable materials of all sorts, tables of accredited institutions of higher education in the United States, institutions offering professional training, those accredited for teacher education, and a distribution of doctorates from 1939-40 through 1950 by both institution and subject. Next we have a listing of foreign medical schools, special programs, government acts for administering foreign programs, U. S. Educational Commissions and Foundations, U. S. Information Centers and Binational Centers abroad, as well as other pertinent information.

An excellent *Bibliography* and *Index* complete the book.

The value and usefulness of the book are apparent at a glance by anyone having the slightest acquaintance with the problems involved in international education. It will be, as will its successors, a *vade-mecum* for all university administrators, counselors for foreign students, and those planning to study abroad. The Institute of International Education is to be commended and thanked for assembling the material and making it available in usable and convenient form. Let us hope that it will be reprinted regularly and brought up-to-date with each successive printing.

WM. MARION MILLER

Department of Romance Languages and Literatures
Miami University

Travel Abroad—Frontier Formalities. New York: The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and The International Union of Official Travel Organizations, 1955. Pp. i + 87.

The simplest way to bring the purposes of this publication to the attention of the public is to quote briefly from its "Foreword."

"Both [publishing] organizations have a direct interest in helping the traveler solve his problems. It is recognized that international travel is essential to the promotion of understanding and co-operation among different nations. Tourism and travel have many important economic implications. They can also have a great educational value. Whatever other means may be used for learning the ways of other nations, there can be no substitute for the personal and direct experiences that travel abroad

can give. The more the traveler can be helped to cross frontiers, the better his chances of knowing his fellow men. The more friendliness and assistance he experiences abroad, the more likely he is to use the knowledge he has gained to increase international co-operation.

"Frontiers, and the various formalities that have to be observed in crossing them, are among the chief problems of modern travel. But these formalities are rarely intended as obstructions in entering or leaving a country. The reasons for their imposition can be many, but the traveler who complies with them is still a welcome visitor. An exact knowledge of regulations affecting international travel is therefore necessary to anyone who wishes to go abroad. This is part of the service that *Travel Abroad—Frontier Formalities* intends to give."

Another problem of international travel is cost. The increasing volume and improved methods of modern transportation are bringing travel abroad within the reach of more and more individuals. But it is still important to many people to know of reduced fares and other special facilities they can obtain. Information of this type is a further service that *Travel Abroad—Frontier Formalities* provides.

There is still more information and help that the traveler may need. For many persons it is not enough to have overcome the problems of frontier formalities and the problems of costs. Their visits abroad can be made doubly worth while by the assistance they can receive from various types of organizations aiming to help the visitor from abroad. Many such organizations exist for educational, cultural, and professional purposes. Whether the traveler needs advice, personal contacts, or accommodations, there is probably an organization that can help. Lists of such organizations are included in *Travel Abroad—Frontier Formalities*.

With its world-wide coverage and its system of keeping information up-to-date, this publication aims to provide a unique service which can answer the needs felt by many persons concerned with international travel.

GEORGE C. GROSSCUP, JR.

Director, "Miami University Abroad"

Oxford, Ohio

Study Abroad: Volume VII—1955-56. A UNESCO Publication. New York: Columbia University Press, 1955. Pp. 703. \$2.00.

This is the seventh year that UNESCO has issued, by way of the Columbia University Press, this compendium of useful information relative to opportunities for subsidized educational travel and study abroad. The present edition "gives information on over 50,000 fellowships, scholarships and other subsidized opportunities for educational travel. The offers cover study in practically every field of learning. They are made by

donors in over one hundred countries and territories." The present publication also continues the plan, begun with Volume VI, of presenting this information in a single trilingual edition in English, French, and Spanish. The useful information which *Study Abroad* makes readily accessible for quick and easy reference is by no means confined to its carefully prepared indexes and statistical tables and its detailed listings of the international fellowships and scholarships that are annually available. There is also much helpful and significant advice to be found in the short chapters which comprise the Introduction. The brief chapter, for instance, on "Planning to Study Abroad" should be required reading for anyone contemplating a tour of study in a foreign country. To give the volume a greater utility from the point of view of the time factor, the authorities will henceforth issue *Study Abroad* in September or October, rather than in January as was previously the practice.

W. G. B.

Benjamin Fine, *Fine's American College Counselor and Guide*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1955. Pp. xiv + 413. \$4.95.

Dr. Fine has written this book in answer to one of the most persistent questions which he has been asked during his eighteen years in the education department of *The New York Times*, namely, "How shall I choose my college successfully and intelligently?"

The book has four sections. Section I is designed to give a broad perspective of college life and its philosophy. There is an excellent student self-inventory questionnaire under three general headings: What kind of student are you? What kind of person are you? Why do you want to go to college? Dr. Fine answers the question, "Who should go to college?" by stating the general rule that a student should rank at least in the upper half of his class to consider himself eligible for college. Dr. Fine points out that college is a way of living, thinking, and feeling during a very important period of one's life. Choosing a college is a family affair, and the vocational aims of the student are involved. Many secondary schools have counselors whose guidance should be sought. There is a chapter on admissions and accreditation containing many helpful suggestions. The important question of military service, including draft deferment, the G. I. Bill, and ROTC in the universities, is adequately discussed.

Section II is concerned with the different kinds of college education: the Liberal Arts Colleges, Land-Grant Colleges, Universities, Junior Colleges, Professional and Technical Schools. These chapters contain helpful suggestions on choosing a college suited to the needs of the individual. One wonders why Dr. Fine has given much more attention to the Junior College than to any other type of institution and why he has placed his brief discus-

sion of the Land-Grant College in his chapter on the Liberal Arts College.

Section III, "The Professions," has chapters arranged alphabetically beginning with Agriculture and ending with Veterinary Medicine. There is a good discussion of each profession including necessary qualifications, type of collegiate program involved, opportunities within the profession, and restrictions, if any. Each chapter is followed by a list arranged alphabetically by states, which provides an excellent easy reference to collegiate institutions offering programs in preparation for the profession. One could be critical of some of Dr. Fine's statements, but they would be rather minor criticisms. For example, under Medicine he states, "The doctors get higher salaries than any other profession," without mentioning the low-salaried internships which follow the M.D. degree and the early struggle many young doctors go through before they establish a remunerative practice. Also under Engineering he has little to say about the newer trends such as the increasing importance of Engineering-Physics in this developing atomic age.

Section IV is a directory by states of regionally accredited four-year institutions (a list of accredited junior colleges appears after the chapter on the Junior College) with twenty-two items listed for each institution.

Dr. Fine has attempted an ambitious task, and on the whole he has done it exceedingly well. It is a book which should be studied by everyone, including parents, of course, who must aid high-school students to decide whether or not to go to college and what type of institution to select. It would also be excellent material for an orientation course for high school seniors planning to go to college. It is not a book that will be easily read by high school juniors and seniors.

GEORGE P. TUTTLE

*Director of Admissions and Records
University of Illinois*

The National Committee on the Preparation of a Manual on College and University Business Administration, *College and University Business Administration*, Volume II. Washington: American Council on Education, 1955. Pp. xii + 267. \$4.50.

This is the second volume of studies advanced by the American Council on Education. Both volumes are indispensable reading for those responsible for administration and finance in American higher education. Many persons caught in the minutiae of academic administration lament the manner in which rules, regulations, forms, questionnaires, and records seem to overburden that which is considered the process of education. They recommend a return to simple systems of other times and early cultures. As utopian as this may appear to be, it would be impossible and undesira-

ble to separate the conduct of higher education from the practices, policies, and benefits of companion business and financial institutions. One must also accept then whatever evils seem to accompany these useful practices in the form of overorganization or an abundance of vice presidents.

Volume II should be read as "a statement of general principles. It is not intended to be a manual of detailed procedures." It is not a bible which sets forth rules that can be followed under any circumstances. One cannot assume, therefore, that its recommendations are the only or best for each campus or any situation. It is not a technical volume in the accounting field or an exhaustive manual of good administrative or personnel practice.

If it presumed to be any of the above its uses would indeed be limited. It is a syllabus of good practice. Here one finds observations and suggestions that have come out of experiences that test, and circumstances that try. For institutions that are in the process of self-evaluation and reorganization, it will suggest ways in which the staff can serve more effectively, the resources can be conserved more efficiently, and the welfare of employees can be advanced in accord with good practice.

The chapter headings deal with the many aspects of college and university administration. Proper consideration is given to the desirability for centralizing many activities. For example, the beginning chapter, which describes purchasing, defines fully and carefully the duties and responsibilities that will lead to best methods of procurement. Quite properly, the writer does not suggest a single pattern for all institutions but points out the possibilities for waste and extravagance when a centralized function does not exist. The narrative is well handled. The chapters on physical plant and insurance are also well covered, with ample latitude for adapting recommendations to local problems and conditions. As implied in the descriptive material, it should be remembered that discretion must be used in determining what kind of insurance is needed and the extent to which there should be exclusions under the policy. The cardinal feature in all insurance is protection not litigation.

One might question the desirability of having frequent extensive equipment inventories as suggested in Chapter 4. These are costly to establish and expensive to maintain. On the other hand, it is extremely important to follow another recommendation in the same chapter concerning the ownership and transfer of equipment. All equipment should belong to the total institution; it should be available for transfer from one department to another; and such transfer should be authorized by a central office.

The paragraphs on intercollegiate athletics are fully descriptive of desirable practices but discuss too briefly the problems faced by some institutions with respect to finding a balanced approach to this rather speculative operation. Interestingly enough more space was devoted to the

speculative nature of the university press than to a forthright statement on the propriety of extensive subsidy for intercollegiate athletics.

The sections dealing with the management of student affairs and non-academic personnel are well handled and the statement on pensions and retirement plans is very comprehensive. The advice given is excellent.

Throughout, this volume reflects the judgments and opinions obtained by experienced men who know that no single matrix will meet the needs of all institutions. The bibliography is excellently arranged and contains a surprising amount of writing on college and university business administration. Much of this has appeared in publications other than those devoted to college and university administration.

MILLARD E. GLADFELTER
Provost and Vice President
Temple University

Joan Dunn, *Retreat from Learning: Why Teachers Can't Teach—A Case History*. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1955. Pp. xvi + 224. \$3.00.

At this time when we are faced with the most critical shortage of teachers in our history, Joan Dunn comes forth with her *Retreat from Learning* and proceeds to tell us, in running and interesting style, why she reluctantly decided to withdraw from the teaching profession.

As with many another college student, Joan Dunn found herself confronted with the problem of determining the line of work she might most wish to follow upon graduation. She was able to narrow her choice to becoming either a teacher or a journalist. She had an enthusiasm for being associated with young people; she had an equal enthusiasm for the English language and literature; and she had before her the example of a teacher whom she greatly admired. In view of the compelling urge of these interests, it was but natural that Miss Dunn should decide in favor of teaching over journalism. Upon the completion of her studies, she secured a position as a teacher of English in one of the larger high schools in the New York City system. But at the end of her fourth year, the frustrations had come to outnumber so greatly the rewards that she decided to retreat from her position as teacher to a staff position in the editorial department of *Time* magazine.

It was the gradual, slow accumulation of many individual annoyances and frustrations that finally prompted Miss Dunn to retreat from the profession which she tells us was one that she loved. There was, for instance, the general unconcern of the system for the welfare of the classroom teacher. Advancement and prestige came most rapidly to those who could work themselves into any sort of administrative assignment, with the compensatory reduction in the number of classes to be taught.

There was the complete by-passing of the classroom teachers on all matters relative to procedural changes or curricular planning and research. There was the depressing lack of discipline on the part of large numbers of students and the inadequacy of the methods used by the school to cope with its disciplinary problems. There was "the tension attached to teaching under the circumstances common in today's New York public schools." There was, furthermore, Miss Dunn's intense conviction that the system in which she was employed expected its teachers to teach in accordance with what she regarded as the false standards of progressive education.

The *Retreat from Learning* is in part a case history and in part an exposition of the reasons teachers can't teach, as the author herself understands these reasons to be. In the first two chapters, Miss Dunn tells us why she decided to prepare herself for a career as a teacher; she gives us a profile of the high school in which she taught; she explains the Board of Education in its relationship to the New York City public high schools; and she describes her fellow teachers and their students. She gives us—in her third chapter, with the title "From Day to Day"—an extremely interesting account of a typical day in the life of a classroom teacher. Up to this point, the *Retreat from Learning* has been a case history, more or less; but from this point on, that is, in the remaining three chapters, Miss Dunn turns her attention to what she terms "the larger issues." It is in this latter section of her book that she probes most critically into the reasons teachers can't teach. She contends that teachers can't teach when the system which employs them expects its teachers to teach in accordance with false standards; and this, according to Miss Dunn, is precisely what happens when a school, such as hers, goes in too heavily for the philosophy and methodology of progressive education.

The section of Miss Dunn's book in which she points out the shortcomings of progressive education will be by far the most controversial. It is not that too much fault can be found with her criticism of what she regards as the unworkable features of the progressive philosophy and methodology; it is, rather, that she has too great a propensity for extending her generalizations into areas where they have little foundation in fact and hence become dangerously misleading. For instance, let us admit that the school in which she was employed as a teacher of English subscribed to educational standards which seemed to her to be false. Now it might, and with some degree of appropriateness, be possible to extend this generalization to include the system of which this particular school was a member. But to imagine such a condition as being characteristic of our system of public education in general is absurd. And yet this is precisely what the author does when she proceeds to state: "The school system is a man sick in his guts; he cannot be cured by a Band-Aid on his finger." Or, to cite another instance, Miss Dunn points out that, as a result of their great

emphasis upon the child-centered school, the progressives advocated the giving of more and more prerogatives to the students. As Miss Dunn states in this connection: "This new methodology has raised a breed of child afraid of no one, awed by no rule or regulation. They know that courses are planned and diplomas accredited solely on the basis of pupil interest." It is possible that some schools may have turned out youngsters of precisely this sort, but the condition is certainly not widespread. And even if such a condition were found to be generally applicable in all school systems, it would still be stretching a generalization into absurdity to imagine the new methodology of progressive education to be the sole cause of it.

As the great Sir Francis Bacon has reminded us: "Read not to contradict and confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find talk and discourse, but to weigh and consider." In spite of the numerous statements in the *Retreat from Learning* which may irritate us into an immediate desire to contradict and confute, there are also numerous others which we may find it vastly more profitable to weigh and consider. There is, for instance, the litany which Miss Dunn reads to parents who are derelict in the obligations and responsibilities which they owe to their children. "The parents who cannot cope with one or two children expect one teacher to cope with forty-five. They believe that this teacher should teach academic subjects, manners, ideals, and habits. But this is not the teacher's job. To permit teachers to do the best they can, children should come to them well mannered, well spoken, decently dressed, in normal health, and already aware of the difference between right and wrong. They should also be ready to learn and have a healthy respect for authority." There is her concern for the welfare of the average student, in which category the great majority of our high-school boys and girls find themselves. "Present-day curriculum planning is concerned solely with extremes of intelligence. The intelligent and the stupid get all the attention, while the great undistributed middle goes its own haphazard way." And there is Miss Dunn's charge that the great emphasis which the progressive philosophy has placed upon the importance of group action has done measureless damage to the individual student. "This new system in methodology harms the children most by failing to instill in them a sense of personal responsibility and by failing to teach them the necessity and value of self-discipline. Everything is done in a group. The child loses his identity and his responsibility for himself."

Using the I. Q. as the initial guide, the system under which Miss Dunn was employed followed the plan of a homogeneous grouping of students for all the required subjects. The smart students were put into an honor class, the average ones into a regular class, and the slow learners into a general class. One of the major difficulties growing out of this sort of grouping was the tendency to make the general classes a sort of catchall

for the discipline cases, with the result that these G classes became, as a rule, almost impossible to teach. Of the students in such classes, Miss Dunn has this to say: "I learned that it was impossible to build any kind of lesson on their interests because their interests are too few, on their likes because their likes are too shocking, on their dislikes because then you would spend a term justifying parents, teachers, schools, police, and authority in general. I found them interested in three things: sex, noise, and violence, in that order. The only thing capable of holding their interest for an appreciable amount of time would be a combination of all three. But how can a teacher compete with the movies and TV, where they get it all together and in quantity?" And apropos of this same general subject of building a lesson, or constructing the curriculum, around the "needs, interests, and abilities" of the students, Miss Dunn adds this further comment: "There is just so much experience, in each child or each group, to be used as a basis for learning, and, when that is exhausted, the intelligent ones need formal training as much as the average ones. If no formal learning is attempted, if their teacher carries progressivism to its logical conclusion, they are left in a vacuum that can only be filled by self-importance."

The Retreat from Learning is the sort of book that must be read with great care because it is the sort of attack on our public schools which can easily create impressions that cannot be substantiated by evidence founded in fact. Miss Dunn is at her best when she is talking about the school in which she taught and when she is explaining the reasons which prompted her personally to retreat from teaching to journalism. She also analyzes in rather able fashion those aspects of progressive education which she holds to be unworkable and damaging to student and teacher alike. But Miss Dunn is not at her best when she indulges too romantically in her propensity to pass from the specific to the general. It is essential, therefore, that the reader be constantly on the alert for the broad statements and generalizations in which Miss Dunn extends her own opinions and personal experiences into areas of educational thought and history with which she is obviously not overly familiar. The damage that may have been done to our public schools by the philosophy and methodology of progressive education has been by no means so widespread as Miss Dunn leaves the impression that it has.

But as previously noted, Miss Dunn is at her best when setting forth the reasons that prompted her personally to withdraw forever from the teaching profession. There is the general notion on the part of large segments of the public that the teacher's job is an easy one. For all its limitations, the *Retreat from Learning* should be required reading for all who entertain such notions.

W. G. B.

Education at Amherst: The New Program, ed. by Gail Kennedy. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1955. Pp. xi + 330. \$4.00.

"Are you planning to send your boy to Amherst?" asked a colleague who noticed *Education at Amherst: The New Program* on my desk. From that time on I had a hard time recovering the philosophical objectivity with which I had been reading and underlining the text. Nevertheless, I am convinced that a remarkable study of education was made at Amherst, that sound recommendations were remarkably adopted, and that many American colleges might well learn from Amherst's experience.

In 1945 a faculty committee on long range policy made a report on curriculum and other matters. Most of the recommendations were adopted. In 1954 a second committee, three of whose four members had served on the former committee of six, restudied the college in the light of the recommendations made by the first committee. The two reports, edited by Gail Kennedy, Professor of Philosophy and chairman of the two committees, are included here.

Committee reports, except for inspired passages here and there, are hard reading at best. Furthermore, as Professor Kennedy says, committee studies require a good deal of reading between the lines. Also, however static a report may be, the college itself is constantly changing. Some curricular alterations, mentioned in footnotes, were made as late as the spring of 1955. A reviewer, therefore, may easily be mistaken in specific applications.

The new curriculum, affecting largely the first two years of study, aims at an integration of courses and at the use of the laboratory method, in which students work out problems in small groups under guidance. Obviously, there has been a revolution against the proliferation of electives in the freshman and sophomore years, and quite as obviously there has been an attempt made, in some instances, to establish the small-class laboratory type of instruction, and in others to add a small-class laboratory to large lecture courses. The number of "contact" hours has been increased somewhat over the number of credit hours. Also the normal load of the student has been altered (*reduced* would not be correct) from five courses to four, or the equivalent.

There is a two-year sequence in science. The first year is devoted to an integrated course in physics and mathematics. ("The science majors and premedical students take in their sophomore year a one-semester physics course which is designed to fill the gaps.") The sophomore year is devoted either to a two-semester sequence in Chemistry-Biology (each half of which includes about 80 per cent of the former year course) or to a course called Evolution of Earth and Man, a co-operative venture, by the departments of astronomy, geology, and biology.

There is a two-year sequence in history and the social sciences. The first course, taught by the Department of History, is a survey of "Western (European) civilization from the Roman synthesis to the present time," largely by lecture. The second, called Problems in American Civilization, is taught in lectures (about 250 students) and laboratory sections by members of the Departments of Economics, History, English, Philosophy, and Political Science. Some twelve problems, without chronological continuity, are studied each year by an integration of the approaches normal to the separate fields represented by the staff.

There is a sequence in humanities. In the freshman year a fourth of the student's time is devoted to English composition (three meetings a week the first semester and two meetings the second) and to readings in Greek literature, the Bible, and a few books selected from the medieval, Renaissance, and modern periods (two meetings the first semester and three the second). In the spring of 1955 a change was made in the second-year requirement. Now a student must take nine credit hours (six by the end of his sophomore year), three from each of the following three fields or six from one field and three from a second: (a) philosophy, religion, classical civilization; (b) music, fine arts, dramatic arts; (c) English or foreign literature. Presumably the sophomore Introduction to Literature will continue, in effect, to be for the majority of the students a part of their core curriculum.

The student must convince the appropriate language department that he has a "firmer grasp" of a foreign language than was formerly included in the requirement of a "reading knowledge." Considerable useful experimentation has been undertaken in the teaching of foreign language, though perhaps it should be said that the teaching of Russian did not work out and that enrollments in foreign languages have not increased.

Finally, each freshman must, as in the days before the new curriculum, attend Public Speaking once a week.

I have said little about exceptions and nothing about honors work, a major topic in itself, because it has been changed little. Nor have I mentioned costs or difficulties of staffing. As regards physical education it may be sufficient to quote the review committee:

"Physical education is required for only two years instead of four; intercollegiate competition for freshmen (on freshman teams) has been continued; and the Long Range Policy Committee's recommendation that an opportunity should be given all students who are physically fit and wish to do so to participate in intercollegiate sports was not adopted."

In many respects these committee reports possess characteristic New England virtues—high thinking, messianic conviction, and fidelity to the point of a public cleansing of the fraternal linen. The first committee recommended the abolition of fraternities as both antisocial and anti-

intellectual, and the faculty accepted the recommendation. The trustees demurred. Changes took place, however, some of them revolutionary, and now anyone who wants to can join a fraternity at Amherst. Actually, the student body, coming from the economic upper and upper middle class, and representing private preparatory or large urban and suburban high schools, has very few "men who do not fit into the near-homogeneous student group." Now the fraternities, social minded, are not antisocial; but they are still anti-intellectual.

The original committee wished to increase the geographical and economic distribution of the student body. But little is being accomplished, especially in the second respect, despite the attraction of what to many colleges would be an extraordinarily large scholarship fund. If only the funds could be used to finance an education for a large enough number of brilliant but poor boys to make a congenial group instead of to compete with comparable colleges for the brilliant sons of well-to-do families, the college would return to the founders' purpose "to civilize and evangelize the world by the classical education of indigent young men of piety and talents."

JOHN W. BOWYER
Department of English
Southern Methodist University

In the Journals

E. T.

In the *Bulletin* of the American Association of University Professors for Winter 1955, Professor Fritz Machlup of the Johns Hopkins University writes "On Some Misconceptions Concerning Academic Freedom." He begins by defining academic freedom and from that definition proceeds to clarification. "Academic freedom," says Professor Machlup, "consists in the absence of, or protection from, such restraints or pressures—chiefly in the form of sanctions threatened by state or church authorities or by the authorities, faculties, or students of colleges and universities, but occasionally also by other power groups in society—as are designed to create in the minds of academic scholars (teachers, research workers, and students in colleges and universities) fears and anxieties that may inhibit them from freely studying and investigating whatever they are interested in, and from freely discussing, teaching, or publishing whatever opinions they have reached."

There are various misunderstandings of academic freedom and various doubts about it. Professor Machlup deals with thirteen of these beginning with the question of whether academic freedom is merely an aspect of freedom of speech. He points out that academic freedom is somewhat more than the freedom of speech generally enjoyed because freedom of speech "has a very special function in the case of those whose job it is to speak." He makes clear that academic freedom is not a favor to a special interest group and shows why the academic freedom even of faculty nuisances must be maintained.

Definition of such responsibility and its expression are by no means simple. Dissenters must be protected from the usual consequences of their unpopularity and there must be freedom for those who abuse academic freedom. As to the notion that academic freedom should be confined to the recognized area of a scholar's competence, Professor Machlup makes clear that the definition of such an area is practically impossible and that such restriction is designed to discourage.

Freedom to teach subversive ideas and freedom only for loyal citizens or for those without independence of thought is a complicated question, but Professor Machlup simplifies it remarkably well and makes a clear case in behalf of those with all sorts of ideas. When he speaks of freedom for those who would destroy freedom, he says of the man who seeks to destroy freedom, "if we silence him, *we* have *actually* abrogated freedom of speech, whereas *he* has merely talked about doing so." And he concludes that an oath which restricts teaching in any respect obstructs

the attainment of the very objectives which its proponents mean to serve.

Professor Machlup's statement is so lucid and so unequivocal that it deserves close study by all concerned in academic affairs.

Professor Dietrich Gerhard discusses in the same *Bulletin* "The Emergence of the Credit System in American Education Considered as a Problem of Social and Intellectual History." He shows how the credit system grew from beginnings a hundred years ago and has grown in importance to the present day, until there is a very real danger that our students are amassing credits rather than knowledge and wisdom and that they are not only being encouraged to do so but are being compelled to do so. A great many people need to be reminded of what President Lowell of Harvard said—he is quoted by Professor Gerhard—"The real unit is the student. He is the only thing in education that is an end in itself."

For the first time, the National Education Association has made a study of the needs for faculty in institutions of higher education. The results of the study are reported in the NEA Research Bulletin for December 1955, "Teacher Supply and Demand in Degree-Granting Institutions, 1954-55." Such a study can never be as definitive as the annual NEA survey of the teacher needs in elementary and secondary schools because of the many variables that affect the needs in the several fields, the numerous sources of supply, and the keen competition for those who are qualified. However, the statistics compiled here should help individual institutions with the more comprehensive studies they must make, and they will be of value to students who are interested in college or university teaching.

Six hundred seventy-three institutions are represented in the survey, which shows the number of full-time teachers by type of institution, by general field of teaching, by sex, and by age. Information was also gathered on the number of new teachers employed in 1953-54 and 1954-55 by general fields of teaching, by sources of supply, and by amount of academic training. Two hundred forty-six institutions reported unfilled teaching positions. As may be expected, the largest number of these (at 92 institutions) are in the field of the physical sciences, with 58 institutions reporting unfilled positions in engineering, 38 in mathematics, 37 in education, and 34 in business and commerce. Only 26 institutions reported no shortage of qualified teachers in any field, while 219 reported no oversupply in any field.

The earliest need for additional teachers is anticipated in the subjects most often taught in the freshman and sophomore years, such as English, the physical sciences, and the social sciences. In the field of physical sciences, where 92 institutions reported unfilled teaching positions, 446 re-

ported a shortage of qualified teachers and only four reported an oversupply. In the field of social sciences, 14 institutions reported unfilled positions with 64 reporting a shortage of qualified teachers and 257 reporting an oversupply. In English, 10 institutions reported unfilled positions, 33 reported a shortage of qualified teachers and 177 reported an oversupply.

Further studies along these lines are imperative for those charged with the responsibility of recruitment of adequate faculties.

"Soviet Secondary Education—Designed to Achieve Future Scientific Supremacy," by Eleanor S. Lowman, is the feature article in the December 1955 issue of *Higher Education*. The Soviets are decreasing the emphasis on ideology in the secondary schools and increasing the scientific and technical training. Physics, chemistry, and biology are considered of first importance, rather than the humanities. Because of the longer school year and more school days a week, the 10-year curriculum in the Soviet Union has as many hours of instruction as the 12-year curriculum in American schools. The difference in the emphasis on science is great. "Whereas each of the more than 1 million Soviet students graduating from secondary schools last June had taken 5 years of physics, 1 year of astronomy, 4 years of chemistry, 5 of biology, 10 of mathematics including algebra, geometry, and trigonometry less than a third of a total of approximately the same number of American high school graduates had taken as much as a year of chemistry. About a fourth had had a year of physics, and less than a seventh had taken any advanced mathematics."

The Soviets insure the quality of training by the policy that "specialized teachers teach specialized subjects, that is, a physics teacher teaches physics." Because of the greatly expanded number of high school graduations, the university entrance requirements have been raised. Those who were not straight "A" students in the secondary schools must pass a strenuous entrance examination. By decrees that certain percentages of university graduates will be directed to work as teachers in the 10-year schools, the Soviets will meet their announced policy of staffing all of their classrooms from grades 5 to 10 with qualified college-trained teachers, and those of their primary schools with teachers from the normal schools (2 years of college). The present "student-teacher ratio (is) now estimated at less than 23 to 1."

Secondary school students who will not be able to meet the university requirements are receiving training that will be of value to them as sub-professional technicians and laborers. This is in addition to the existing factory and trade schools. Vocational schools with one- and two-year courses have also been added for graduates of the 10-year curriculum.

Reported to Us

M. M. C.

On November 15, 1955 Pennsylvania College for Women changed its name to Chatham College. Because the former name had led to confusion with other institutions and a widespread impression that the College is state supported, the Board of Trustees selected the new name, which honors the memory of one of freedom's greatest champions, Lord Chatham.

After nearly fifty years of service Mrs. Mary Belden James Lehn, registrar at Hunter College, has announced that she will retire at the end of the spring semester. Mrs. Lehn graduated from Hunter College and served as secretary to the president from 1907 to 1932, when she became registrar. Mrs. Lehn is the author of fifty published short stories and plans to devote her time to writing when she retires.

Miss Edna M. Newby, formerly Director of Admissions at Douglass College, assumed the newly created position of Assistant Dean in Charge of Administrative Services at the women's college of the State University of New Jersey on January 1, 1956.

In her new position Miss Newby acts as co-ordinator of the work of the Admissions Office and the Registrar's Office as well as that relating to the scholarship program which previously has been divided among the Admissions Office, the Personnel Bureau, and the Office of the Dean of Instruction. A central records system, soon to be established, will also come under Miss Newby's supervision.

Creation of the new post makes for greater efficiency in administrative operations in anticipation of the future growth of the college and at the same time makes it possible for Dr. Mary I. Bunting, Dean of the College, to give more time to educational matters.

Mr. R. Clark Gilmore, registrar at Wright Junior College since 1948, died on December 4, 1955. He was connected with the Chicago Public School System for twenty-five years. Prior to his appointment as registrar he taught biology in the Chicago City Junior College and later was engaged in student counseling activities at Wright Junior College.

Mr. Gilmore's undergraduate study was done at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. He was awarded the M. S. Degree by the Ohio State University.

General Electric Company has named Robert N. Searles, former Assist-

ant Director of Admissions and Records at the University of Vermont, as educational specialist in the Company's Educational Relations Services Department.

In his new post, Mr. Searles will engage in activities connected with General Electric's broad program of educational support, including the Corporate Alumnus Program and various scholarship and fellowship awards.

New York University will offer a workshop for registration and admissions officers again in the summer of 1956 at the Washington Square Center. The workshop begins on June 20 and closes on July 1, with enrollment limited to twenty persons. Anyone interested in attending may send to Dean Elwood C. Kastner, New York University, Washington Square, New York 3, New York, for detailed information.

Lewis-Clark Normal School division of the University of Idaho opened last September on the campus of the former Northern Idaho College of Education at Lewiston, Idaho. The former college of education has been closed for four years.

At the last session of the Idaho state legislature appropriations were made for the normal school to be operated by the University of Idaho with offerings to be limited to the first two years of elementary teacher training. The first year of work is being offered this year and next September classes for the second year of work will be inaugurated.

A Commission on Mathematics that will investigate the need for revision of the secondary school mathematics curriculum has been appointed by the College Entrance Examination Board. The Commission, a group of 13 high school and college mathematics teachers, proposes to investigate the need and possibilities for revision of the high school syllabus. One or more conferences of high school and college teachers and administrators will be summoned to advise and assist the Commission. Following such meetings, and in the light of the experience and deliberations of its own members, the Commission will recommend necessary and desirable action to the College Board.

The Commission met for the first time at Ann Arbor, Michigan, in August 1955, and reached the following tentative conclusions:

(1) High school mathematics is in need of revision which would include the addition of new materials and the elimination of some, and reorganization of other topics now being taught;

(2) In considering a topic for deletion or inclusion the Commission will bear in mind the relevance of the topic to modern mathematics, social and natural science, and engineering;

(3) Liaison with and the co-operation of all groups interested in school and mathematics curricula is essential; and

(4) The development of a single definitive syllabus is undesirable, if not impossible. The Commission therefore proposes to formulate a broad list of topics and to suggest where and how they might be introduced.

The Commission met again in January in Princeton, New Jersey, and a conference of high school and college teachers is being planned for the fall of 1956. Between these dates, the group will carry on its task by means of subcommittee investigations of topics that might be added to or deleted from the mathematics curriculum.

The Institute of International Education announces that over 9,000 U. S. students studied abroad during 1954-55, according to the preliminary returns of a survey taken by the Institute.

Initial returns from this first statistical report on American students abroad indicate that 9,262 U. S. citizens studied in 47 foreign countries and political areas during the past academic year. The survey was limited to students having both U. S. citizenship and permanent residence in the United States.

Almost 59 per cent (5,461) of those reported were enrolled in European schools; 15 per cent were in Mexico; and 14.8 per cent in Canada. Four countries reported over 1,000 U. S. citizens in their institutions of higher education: Mexico, 1,395; Canada, 1,374; Italy, 1,084, and the United Kingdom, 1,009.

European countries, in addition to Italy and the United Kingdom, where over 100 U. S. students enrolled were: Germany, 834; France, 805; Switzerland, 759; the Netherlands, 200; Spain, 165; Austria, 158; and Belgium, 134.

There were 624 students in the Far East, 491 of these in the Philippines and 112 in Japan. The Near East received 141—81 in Israel and 54 in Lebanon. In the Western Hemisphere, in addition to Mexico and Canada, there were 51 students enrolled in Caribbean countries and 100 in South America. Of this last number, 85 went to Peru.

There were 31 students in Africa—18 in Egypt and 9 in the Union of South Africa. Oceania received 85 students—66 in Australia and 19 in New Zealand.

Of the first 8,219 students reported, 74.2 per cent pursued studies in six academic fields: liberal arts, 1,973; medicine, 1,718; theology, 764; social sciences, 753; creative arts, 477; and natural and physical sciences, 415. There was no answer as to field for 1,735 students, or 20.9 per cent of the first 8,219 reported.

Other subjects studied abroad were: business administration, 151;

engineering, 105; education, 95; and agriculture, 21. There were 48 students in all other fields. It is interesting to note the countries where specific subjects were pursued. These figures, again, were prepared from returns on 8,219 students. Of the 1,973 liberal arts students, there were 486 in the United Kingdom, 435 in Canada, 211 in Germany, 179 in Mexico, 163 in France, 118 in Spain, 67 in Switzerland, 62 in Japan. Of 1,718 students of medicine, there were 490 in Switzerland, 342 in Italy, 332 in Canada, 125 in the Netherlands, 103 in Belgium, 78 in Germany, 50 in the United Kingdom.

Of 764 theology students, there were 422 in Italy, 145 in Canada, 84 in the United Kingdom. Of the 753 students in the social sciences, 204 were in Mexico, 174 in the United Kingdom, 107 in Switzerland, 70 in France. Of 477 students in the creative arts, 399 were in Europe. There were 115 in Germany, 80 in the United Kingdom, 72 in Austria, 54 in Italy, 31 in France. Mexico received 58 creative arts students. Of 415 students in the natural and physical sciences, there were 121 in Canada, 106 in the United Kingdom, 40 in Germany, 27 in Japan. Of 151 students of business administration, 84 were in Mexico, 38 in Canada, 18 in the Philippines. Of 105 engineering students, 55 were in Canada.

An evaluation of foreign study has been planned by the Institute of International Education, to be prepared by the Sweet Briar Junior Year in France office. The Fund for the Advancement of Education, established by the Ford Foundation, granted Sweet Briar \$10,330 to make this evaluation.

A questionnaire has been sent out to about 1,400 people, 1,000 of whom have participated at one time or another in a foreign study plan. Of these 642 were under the auspices of the University of Delaware and 362 were under Sweet Briar College auspices. The other 400 recipients of the questionnaire are college graduates who have not had the experience of a year of study abroad, to compare the results with those who have.

The questionnaire includes questions on natural and international policies, community interests, foreign study, and travel. The information obtained from this inventory will be compiled into a brochure in 1956, in conjunction with Sweet Briar's observance of its fiftieth anniversary.

No student or his family ever pays the full cost of his college education. If he attends a State university, for example, the taxpayers of the State foot a good part of the bill. If he attends an independent, privately supported liberal arts college or a university, its friends past and present pay a good part of his expenses, by way of accumulated gifts for capital or for current operating use.

These facts, long known to presidents and boards of trustees responsible for the conduct of colleges and universities, are underscored by the results of a survey conducted during 1954 by the Council for Financial Aid to Education, an objective, nonprofit, advisory group founded by leading business men. In analyzing all data from the survey, including operating costs and student fees, the Council divided the 753 responding colleges and universities into nine logical categories.

During the five-year period 1948-49 to 1953-54, institutions in all nine of these groups increased their average charges for student tuition and fees. Among 184 nondenominational, independent, liberal arts colleges the average rise was 24 per cent, from \$441 to \$549. On the other hand, between 1947-48 and 1952-53 the average cost, among this group, of operations per full-time student rose by 46 per cent, from \$726 to \$1,060. The cost per student to the institution, above his payments, rose by an even steeper 98 per cent, from \$201 to \$397.

This same trend holds among the other eight groups of colleges and universities which took part in the Council for Financial Aid to Education survey last year. In each category tuition and fees were increased but the cost of operations per student outran these increases; and, in all except one category, the cost per student, above his payments, went up by a still higher percentage. The highest average cost of operations per student was \$1,065, among the 80 reporting professional and technological schools.

Privately supported colleges and universities attach increasing importance to the Annual Giving by alumni. The amount varies, of course, from institution to institution. Seattle Pacific College reports that it has to raise \$100 a year a student from sources other than the tuition of \$320 paid by each student. Yale College has to provide \$1,050 a year for each student, above his tuition payments. So the amounts that graduates of these and other colleges may feel moved to repay over the years range between \$400 (Seattle Pacific) and \$4,200 (Yale).

Because today's students are getting higher marks than those of earlier generations, Yale University authorities have felt compelled to raise the requirements for being named to the Dean's Honor List. Purpose of the revised regulations is to preserve the prestige of the Dean's List, which in the past 10 years has grown to the point where it contains the names of almost half the undergraduate students in Yale College.

Before World War II, about 30 per cent of the undergraduates in Yale College were on the Dean's List. Expansion of the Dean's List at Yale and other colleges first became apparent in the immediate postwar years. At that time it was attributed to the influx of veterans who, it was believed, were more mature and harder working than students without war experi-

ence. It was generally expected that as the ranks of veterans dwindled, the size of the Dean's List would return to normal proportions.

But such expectations did not materialize. The number of veterans declined, and the size of the Dean's List continued to grow at Yale and at other colleges. The reasons for this phenomenon, according to Richard C. Carroll, Associate Dean of Yale College, are two-fold.

First, competition for admission to Yale in particular and college in general is harder than ever before because of the sharply increased number of applicants. As a result, colleges today are getting the cream of the nation's youth, and more of these students are getting marks of 80 and above than ever before. Secondly, most college students before the war were content to end their education after receiving a bachelor's degree. Today a distinct majority plan to enter graduate or professional schools. As a result, they strive for superior grades during their first four college years in order to qualify for graduate work.

Under the new Yale regulations, only students in the top 25 per cent of their class will be named to the Dean's List. Previously all students with an average of 80 or better were qualified for inclusion on the Dean's List. During the second term last year, 463 of the 814 students in the Senior Class of Yale College were on the Dean's List. Based on the new regulations, only 204 of those students would have been on the Dean's Honor List last year.

Although the size of the Dean's List is being cut, the privileges that went with being named to it are still retained by students with good grades. Students in the sophomore, junior, and senior years who are in the top half of their classes will be allowed unlimited absences from their classes. Actually, these cutting privileges will be enjoyed by more students now than in the past, when unlimited cuts were allowed only to Dean's List students.

New York University has inaugurated an experiment in the teaching of college composition and English literature through closed-circuit television. The new program is being conducted at NYU's Washington Square College of Arts and Science. Some 500 students and more than 40 members of the faculty are involved in the experiment.

College composition and English literature courses meet for one-hour periods three times a week. During the experiment, two class hours will be devoted to the television lecture-demonstrations and one tutorial hour to instruction in discussion groups of not more than 15 students each. Students will see the lectures in eight classrooms. Each classroom will accommodate 25 to 45 students and will contain, depending on the number of viewers, one or two 24-inch receiving sets.

"To facilitate the experiment, we decided to concentrate at the begin-

ning on two courses within the same department," Dean Thomas Clark Pollock explained. "Both college composition and English literature are basic requisites in most colleges, universities, and technical schools. College composition itself probably involves more students and teachers than does any other college course. Therefore, anything we learn in teaching these two courses through closed-circuit television should have widespread value."

Dean Pollock is concerned not only with the direct results of the experiment, which will become apparent as the two-course program progresses, but also with the broader implications to higher education of closed-circuit television.

Nearly 500 students participated during the winter term in Michigan State University's first experiment in instruction by closed-circuit television.

The students are enrolled in classes of educational psychology, introductory chemistry, and communication skills. Although each class varies as to the total amount of instruction given over the closed-circuit system, the experiment basically operates this way:

The instructor and two cameras—one for closeups and the other for distance shots—are located in the auditorium of the university's Giltner Hall. Students, in differently sized groups, are located in the auditorium and four classrooms within the building. A total of eight monitors, with 24-inch screens, are located in the auditorium and the viewing rooms. The circuits also provide for questions from the various rooms.

"I should like to emphasize that no one concerned with the project has any firm conviction as to how well this medium may lend itself to various kinds of instruction," commented President John A. Hannah. "There may be areas in which it will work admirably, and there may be others in which it will not be helpful. But the purpose of the experiment is to learn as much as we can about the medium as an instructional device with reference to both its potential and its limitations."

Although the project is its first venture into closed-circuit television for classroom use, the university has pioneered in presenting telecourses—actual courses for official college credit—via television. A regular schedule of these courses is presented by the Continuing Education Service on WKAR-TV, the Michigan State University television station which has been on the air since January, 1954 as Michigan's first educational TV station.

The National Merit Scholarship Corporation, an independent nonprofit corporation, conducts an annual national talent search for those high school seniors throughout the United States who exhibit the highest

promise of benefiting from a college education. Winners of the 1955-56 search will share in some \$3 million in awards. The Merit Scholarships are good in any accredited U. S. college for any course of study leading to a baccalaureate degree. The basic program has been underwritten for ten years to the extent of \$20.5 million by the Ford Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The awards include scholarships sponsored by Sears Foundation, Time, Inc., Stewart-Warner, McGraw-Hill, Johnson Motor Lines, Pittsburgh Plate Glass Foundation, and General Foods.

Under this program scholarships are being established by the McGraw-Hill Publishing Company at a cost of approximately \$60,000 to be known as the McGraw-Hill Merit Scholarships. They are to be awarded to qualified candidates for a four-year college course in the fields of science, engineering, the other professions, and the liberal arts. There will be no limitation, beyond the appropriate professional accrediting, on the college or university selected by a successful candidate.

The Stewart-Warner Corporation has announced establishment of four four-year engineering scholarships, three in mechanical engineering, and one in electrical engineering, to be awarded to deserving high school graduates of exceptional ability through the National Merit Scholarship Corporation scholarship award program.

The four Stewart-Warner Merit Scholarships will permit four young men to enter the engineering schools of their choice next fall.

Grants totaling \$115,000 from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation to improve the administration of schools will be directed from Alabama Polytechnic Institute during the next four years. Dr. Truman Pierce, dean of Alabama Polytechnic Institute's school of education, announced that \$94,000 will be used in a South-wide program to improve school administration. A smaller grant of \$21,200 will be used to develop the graduate program in school administration.

Bequests of Eugene du Pont will provide the largest addition to scholarship funds for Harvard College in 20 years. The bequests include 3,200 shares of du Pont stock having a current value of almost \$600,000, and \$50,000 in cash. Mr. du Pont, who died last December at the age of 81, was a member of the Class of 1897 at Harvard.

Dean Wilbur J. Bender said the new du Pont Scholarships will provide financial aid for about 12 students each year in Harvard College. One or more of these students will be selected from residents of Delaware, under the terms of the bequests.

Supported by a three-year \$18,400 grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education, Goucher College has inaugurated an experimental internship program in college teaching. Five new faculty members serving as interns have been assigned senior professors as mentors in their teaching and will attend a series of seminars designed to acquaint them "with the nature and aims of Goucher's particular program of studies." Where possible, interns will teach in interdepartmental courses to give them the further benefit of participating in discussion with more experienced teachers in their courses.

President Otto F. Kraushaar notes that Goucher will lose through retirement in the next five years 75% of the senior members of its faculty. One purpose of the internship program is to develop not merely capable replacements but those whose "insight into the total program of the college" will evoke their predecessors' remarkably high ideals of teaching. Another aim is to shorten the "break in" period usually required before a newcomer is ready to assume the larger responsibilities of membership in a college community and before the community receives the full benefits of special abilities he brings.

Goucher's adaptation of the program differs substantially from versions employed at other institutions. The Goucher interns are not novices, since four of them possess varying degrees of teaching experience and all have full faculty status. Accordingly the program of seminars will be turned over to the interns themselves midway through the year, when they will set to work to plan new courses.

Support for a new project designed to discover and make available materials for the study of the arts of the United States has been announced by Carnegie Corporation of New York. Under a \$110,000 grant to the University of Georgia, Lamar Dodd, head of that university's art department and president of the College Art Association, will direct a comprehensive study to identify outstanding examples of American arts including painting, sculpture, architecture, and the crafts. The selected materials will then be reproduced and assembled in a form suitable for use in courses of instruction.

The new program, which is an attempt to remedy a serious dearth of teaching materials available in American art, is a reflection of the Corporation's continuing interest in strengthening American studies in the nation's colleges and universities. The Corporation believes that the collection will be useful not only in college art departments, but will also enhance instruction in other fields of American studies through its illumination of the nation's social, economic, and historical background.

The Second Annual Conference on Reading at Concordia College, Moorhead, Minnesota, has been scheduled for June 18-22, 1956. The main speakers for the five-day conference will be Dr. Emmett A. Betts, Director, and Miss Carolyn M. Welch, Supervisor, The Betts Reading Clinic, Haverford, Pennsylvania; and Dr. P. A. Killgallon, Director, The Reading Clinic, University of Oregon. The Conference Faculty includes supervisors, reading teachers, and consultant teachers from Virginia, Iowa, Wisconsin, Michigan, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Minnesota. An exhibit of representative publishing companies will be available to registered delegates for their examination and discussion.

The theme of the Conference is "Basic Essentials in Reading." Demonstrations, lectures, panel discussions, and group discussions will center on the problems of individual differences, reading inventory, phonics, word perception, interests, and comprehension. Inquiries may be addressed to Walther G. Prausnitz, Head, English Department, Concordia College, Moorhead, Minnesota.

The development of an educational radio program by the University College of the West Indies will be assisted by a Carnegie Corporation grant of \$38,500.

Since its founding in 1946 the University College has had an extramural department conducting adult education work through summer schools, discussion groups, and short courses organized in the seven territories. The use of radio, however, promises to extend its influence through the widely scattered West Indian community, which stretches over some 2,000 miles. For two years the University College has experimented in radio broadcasting from Jamaica. The results of the experiment have been encouraging, and the three-year Corporation grant will be used to develop the program further.

The University of Michigan will repeat in 1956 the *Institute on College Administration* which thirty-one presidents, deans, and other officers attended in 1955. The dates are July 16-20 inclusive. Such problems as the administration of the curriculum, personnel, and finance will be discussed by resource leaders, with special attention to institutional self-studies and to the human relations factor in personnel administration; also an opportunity will be provided for individuals to study problems or topics of special interest to them.

The Director of the Institute will be Algo D. Henderson, Professor of Higher Education, and the Assistant Director will be James M. Davis, Assistant Professor of Education and Director of the International Center, University of Michigan. Other staff will include:

Harry Carman, former Dean of Columbia College, Columbia University.
Rensis Likert, Professor of Psychology and Sociology and Director of the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan.

Lloyd Morey, President Emeritus and Former Comptroller, University of Illinois.

Administrative officers of the University.

The Institute will be preceded by a three-week *Workshop for College Professors*, June 25 to July 13. Additional information may be obtained by writing to the Director, Algo D. Henderson, 2442 U.E.S., University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Regional Associations

Following are brief reports of some of the annual meetings held in various Regional Associations of AACRAO since last September. Space permits the inclusion of only a minimum amount of the important information which was covered at these meetings. It is suggested that where the reader wishes further information about the content and outcomes of a particular meeting, he request such information from the secretary of the appropriate Regional Association. Reports of other Regional Meetings will appear in subsequent issues of this Journal.

CLYDE VROMAN, *Chairman*
Committee on Regional Associations

ARKANSAS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS, ARKANSAS COLLEGE, BATESVILLE OCTOBER 24-25, 1955

Officers for 1955:

President, W. K. Summitt, Registrar, Harding College, Searcy
Vice-President, Miss Frances Crawford, Registrar, Ouachita College,
Arkadelphia
Secretary-Treasurer, Mrs. Jewell C. Reynolds, Little Rock Junior Col-
lege, Little Rock

PROGRAM

MONDAY, OCTOBER 24

1:30 P.M. Group discussion of selected topics:

- a) Selective admissions in the light of rapidly increasing enrollment.
- b) Evaluation of credentials from unaccredited colleges.
- c) Professional training for registrars.

3:30 P.M. Further discussion of selected topics:

- a) A project for the Arkansas ACRAO.
- b) Report on the Boston meeting of AACRAO.
- c) How can the AACRAO be of assistance to the Arkansas ACRAO?
- d) Financing the AACRAO.

4:30 P.M. Business Meeting: Officers elected for 1956: President, Miss Frances Crawford, Registrar, Ouachita College, Arkadelphia; Vice-President, A. B. Cooper, Registrar, Henderson State Teachers College, Arkadelphia; Secretary-

Treasurer, Miss Clara Mills, Registrar, Arkansas A and M College, Monticello.

Upon the invitation of Miss Ruby Villines of the College of the Ozarks, it was decided to hold the 1956 meeting there next year.

7:00 P.M. Dinner and Evening Session held jointly with the Arkansas Association of College Deans.

Address of Welcome: Dr. Paul McCain, President, Arkansas College.

Address: "Selection and Recommendations of Fifth-Year Students in the Arkansas Experiment in Teacher Education," Dr. Guy Curry, Arkansas Department of Education.

Address: "Secondary School-College Relations," Dr. Clyde Vroman, Director of Admissions, University of Michigan, and Chairman, Regional Associations, AACRAO.

TUESDAY, OCTOBER 25, Joint meeting of registrars, admissions officers, and college deans.

8:30 A.M. Address: "Student Retention and Withdrawal," Dr. Clyde Vroman.

Address: "Racial Integration at the College Level in Arkansas," Dr. Ed McCuiston, Assistant Commissioner for Instructional Services, Arkansas Department of Education.

The above report is a digest of the minutes of the meeting furnished to the Regional Chairman by Mrs. Jewell C. Reynolds, Secretary of Arkansas ACRAO.

MICHIGAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND
ADMISSIONS OFFICERS, ALBION COLLEGE, ALBION,
MICHIGAN, NOVEMBER 15, 1955

Officers for 1955:

President, Kermit H. Smith, Michigan State University, East Lansing
Vice-President, Albert Ammerman, Henry Ford Community College,
Dearborn

Secretary, Sister Miriam Fidelis, Marygrove College, Detroit

Treasurer, Florence Kreiter, Hillsdale College, Hillsdale

Past President, George Miller, Wayne University, Detroit

PROGRAM

10:00 A.M. Address of Welcome: President W. W. Whitehouse, Albion College. President Whitehouse pointed out the important

part played by registrars and admissions officers in meeting the needs of the increased college enrollment. He also warned that care must be taken to prevent mass education from becoming mass leveling, because it is imperative that potential leaders be given training commensurate with their ability.

10:30 A.M. Plans for the national meeting of AACRAO in Detroit, April 17-20, 1956, Dr. Edward Groesbeck, General Chairman, and Director of Registration and Records, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

11:30 A.M. Business Meeting

Reports of committees:

- a) High School-College Relations, George Lauer, Dean of Admissions and Records, Central Michigan College, Mt. Pleasant.
- b) Regional Associations and AACRAO, Clyde Vroman, Director of Admissions, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
- c) Registration Statistics on Higher Education in Michigan for the Fall Term, 1955, William Slaby, Wayne University, Detroit.

1:15 P.M. Luncheon. Speaker: Mr. William C. Smyser, First Vice-President, AACRAO. Mr. Smyser emphasized the necessity for enlarging our college facilities to meet the increasing number of students, as a well-educated citizenry is essential for continued United States leadership.

3:30 P.M. Election of new officers for 1956: President, Albert Ammerman, Admissions Officer, Henry Ford Community College, Dearborn; Vice-President, George Lauer, Dean of Admissions and Records, Central Michigan College, Mt. Pleasant; Secretary, Sister Miriam Fidelis, Marygrove College, Detroit; Treasurer, Florence Kreiter, Registrar, Hillsdale College, Hillsdale; Past President, Kermit Smith, Associate Registrar, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

The above report is a digest of the minutes of the meeting furnished to the Regional Chairman by Dr. Everett Marshall, Michigan ACRAO representative to AACRAO.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS
AND OFFICERS OF ADMISSION, CHALFONTE-HADDON
HALL HOTELS, ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY
NOVEMBER 25-26, 1955

The MSACROA is affiliated with the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and holds its annual meeting each year in conjunction with that organization.

Officers of MSACROA for 1955:

- President, Robert L. Taylor, The City College, New York 21, N.Y.
Vice-President, C. O. Williams, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pa.
Secretary-Treasurer, Joseph G. Connor, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C.
Editor, Catherine R. Rich, The Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C.
Past-President, Hazel H. Feagans, American University, Washington D.C.

PROGRAM

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 25, 1955: Participation in meetings of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

SATURDAY, NOVEMBER 26

- 8:30 A.M. "Question Box," for old as well as new registrars and admissions officers. Chairman, Michael P. Boland, Registrar, St. Joseph's College. Discussion leaders: Norma J. Azlein, Associate Registrar, University of Maryland and William J. Everts, Registrar, Colgate University. Recorder: William H. Neal, Registrar, Montgomery Junior College.
- 9:30 A.M. Panel "The Battle of the Bulge—Coping with Larger Enrollments." Chairman: John M. Mullins, Registrar, Columbia University. Panel Consultants: Emma E. Deters, Registrar, University of Buffalo; Alfred D. Donovan, Vice-President, Seton Hall University; Charles Seidle, Director of Admissions, Lehigh University; and John J. Theobald, President, Queens College.
- 11:00 A.M. Panel, "Publications and Promotional Material." Chairman: William G. Fletcher, Director of Admissions, University of Delaware. Panel Consultants: Margaret Darling, Director of Admissions, Beaver College; Paul Kuehner, Registrar, Lincoln University; Mother St. Stephen, Registrar,

Rosemont College; Robert E. Tschan, College Examiner, Pennsylvania State University. Recorder: Robert E. Powers, Director of Admissions, Pace College.

Panel, "Administrative Organization with Particular Reference to the Position of Registrar or Admissions Officer." Chairman: Robert L. Taylor, Registrar, City College of the College of the City of New York. Panel Consultants: John M. Rhoads, Registrar, Temple University; Catherine Rich, Registrar, The Catholic University of America. Recorder: Louis Rabineau, Registrar, Pratt Institute. Discussion revolved in part around the subject of the professional status of the registrar and the admissions officer in relation to the rest of the administrative staff and the question of professional training for the job.

12:15 P.M. Luncheon. Address by John M. Rhoads, President of AACRAO and Registrar, Temple University.

Reports of the Committees and election of officers. Miss Catherine R. Rich, Editor of MSACROA, is preparing copy for the printed Proceedings of the meeting. Also, the MSACROA publishes a very useful Newsletter several times a year which describes the work and plans of that Association.

Officers for 1955-1956 are: President, Joseph G. Connor, Registrar, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C.; Vice-President, George A. Kramer, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N.J.; Secretary-Treasurer, Anna L. Hobbs, Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, N.Y.; Editor, Catherine R. Rich, The Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C.; Past President, Robert L. Taylor, The City College, New York, N.Y.

The above report is a digest of information furnished to the Regional Chairman by Robert L. Taylor, President, MSACROA.

MISSOURI ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND
ADMISSIONS OFFICERS, ANNUAL CONVENTION,
THE UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS CITY
OCTOBER 24-25, 1955

Theme: "MACRAO Looks To The Future"

Officers of MACRAO for 1954-55:

President, Eugene E. Seubert, Admissions Counselor and Assistant Professor of Education, Washington University, St. Louis

Secretary-Treasurer, Paul D. Arend, Registrar, Rockhurst College, Kansas City
Representative to AACRAO, Oliver W. Wagner, Director of Student Records, Washington University, St. Louis
Past President, Martha Ricketts, Registrar, Central College, Fayette

PROGRAM

MONDAY, OCTOBER 24, 1955

1:00 P.M. Registration. Exhibit of Office Equipment.

2:00 P.M. First General Session.

Address of Welcome: Dr. Richard M. Drake, Vice-President, The University of Kansas City

Address: "The Relationship of MACRAO to AACRAO—Past, Present, and Future," Mr. Oliver W. Wagner, Director of Student Records, Washington University.

Address: "MACRAO's Task Ahead in Missouri," Mr. Noel Hubbard, Registrar, Missouri School of Mines and Metallurgy.

3:45 P.M. Second General Session. Panel Discussion: "MACRAO's Opportunities and Responsibilities Ahead." Chairman, Mr. Guy H. Thompson, Administrative Registrar, Southwest Missouri State College; Mr. Noel Hubbard; Mr. Oliver W. Wagner; Dr. Richard Ball, Assistant Dean and Director of Admissions, Junior College of Kansas City; Col. Frederick Marston, Dean, Kemper Military School; and Mr. Richard Axen, Registrar, The University of Kansas City.

The Panel called attention to the contributions of AACRAO and recommended that members attend state and national meetings, write suggestions to officers of AACRAO, set goals to be accomplished by the state Association and provide for greater continuity of officers in MACRAO in order to carry out its projects in the state. The panel members suggested such projects as the publication of a newsletter by the state Association, provision for a state testing program, establishment of a sound basis for reporting enrollments, improvement of the system of co-operative visitation or college day program, provision for a larger executive committee, and appointment of a committee to prepare material for use in promotion of the \$75,000,000 bond issue and the financial support of both public and private institutions. The panel members also discussed

such college administration problems as enrollment predictions, co-operation between faculty and administration, refinement of admission standards, drop-outs, and transfer students.

6:30 P.M. Annual Banquet. Address: Mr. Bill Vaughan, Columnist, *The Kansas City Star*.

TUESDAY, OCTOBER 25

9:00 A.M. Third General Session. Address: "MACRAO's Opportunities and Responsibilities in High School-College Relations," Mr. Neil Freeland, Director of Admissions, Christian College.

Panel Discussion: Chairman, Mr. Richard Keefe, Director of Admissions, St. Louis University; Miss Minnie E. Dingee, Director of Guidance and Counseling, Kansas City Secondary Schools; Mr. Joseph F. Benson, Principal, William Chrisman High School, Independence, Missouri; Mr. Alton T. Bray, Registrar, Southeast Missouri State College; Mr. Stanley Hayden, Registrar and Director of Admissions, Missouri Valley College; Mr. Fred Keller, Registrar, Director of Admissions, and Professor of Education, Tarkio College.

10:30 A.M. Business Meeting: R. A. Ball, Director of Admissions, Kansas City Junior College; R. P. Foster, Registrar, Northwest Missouri State College; and Mr. Seubert were re-elected to represent MACRAO on the Joint Committee for High School-College Relations. A motion amending the MACRAO constitution to provide for a vice-president to become president in the succeeding year and for two additional members on the executive committee to be appointed by the president was passed.

Election of officers for 1956: Mr. Eugene Seubert, Admissions Counselor, Washington University, was re-elected president. Paul D. Arend, Registrar, Rockhurst College, was elected vice-president, and Mr. Neil Freeland, Director of Admissions, Christian College, was elected secretary-treasurer.

The above report is a digest of the minutes of the meeting furnished to the Regional Chairman by Paul D. Arend, Vice-President, MACRAO.

NORTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE
REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS,
HOTEL ROBERT E. LEE,
WINSTON-SALEM, NORTH CAROLINA,
NOVEMBER 8, 1955

Officers of NCACRAO for 1955:

President, E. B. Weatherspoon, Duke University, Durham
Vice-President, A. R. Burkot, Campbell College, Buies Creek
Secretary-Treasurer, Margaret L. Simpson, Salem College, Winston-Salem

PROGRAM

10:30 A.M. Mr. Roy Armstrong, Director of Admissions of the University of North Carolina, presented a report on the national convention in Boston and called particular attention to the publications of the Association and the necessary increase in dues.

Panel: "College Day Problems." Chairman, Mr. Grady Whicker, Director of Public Relations, High Point College; Miss Lucille Browne, Director of Guidance Services, Greensboro City Schools; Miss Edith A. Kirkland, Director of Public Relations, Salem College; Mr. Charles Bernard, Assistant Director of Admissions, University of North Carolina. The Panel discussed the purposes of the College Day program, the problems of scheduling the participating schools, what the high school and college representatives expect of each other, and ethics among the college representatives.

Address: "A Statewide Testing Program—Some Implications," Dr. Roy N. Anderson, Director of Student Personnel, North Carolina State College. Dr. Anderson said the testing program should prove most helpful in determining the most suitable programs for students by discovering their abilities and aptitudes, in aiding teachers to appraise their own teaching, and in predicting the educational level of achievement of students.

Officers elected for 1955-56 were: President, Dr. Rollin E. Godfrey, Registrar, The Woman's College of the University of North Carolina; Vice-President, E. L. Setzler, Dean and Registrar, Lenoir-Rhyne College; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Margaret L. Simpson, Salem College.

12:30 P.M. Luncheon: Address by Mr. William C. Smyser, Registrar,

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, and First Vice-President of AACRAO. Mr. Smyser brought greetings from the national Association. He presented some interesting comments on higher education, pointing out that the variety of educational institutions with the balance between public and private ones has been good for our way of life and that our present institutions have evolved to meet our particular needs. He expressed confidence that American institutions will meet the challenge of present problems.

The above report is a digest of the minutes of the meeting furnished to the Regional Chairman by Margaret L. Simpson, Secretary, NCACRAO.

ASSOCIATION OF OHIO COLLEGE REGISTRARS,
THIRTIETH ANNUAL MEETING, OCTOBER 19-21, 1955,
WITTENBERG COLLEGE, SPRINGFIELD, OHIO

Host Institutions: Wittenberg College and Antioch College

Officers of the AOCR for 1955:

President, Lillian Spindler Sinclair, Marietta College, Marietta
Vice-President, Robert E. Mahn, Ohio University, Athens
Secretary-Treasurer, Charles E. Atkinson, Kent State University, Kent
Ex-Officio Member of the Executive Committee, Ray J. Fellingner, Xavier
University, Cincinnati

PROGRAM

WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 19: 3:30, Registration; 6:15, Dinner and Entertainment.

THURSDAY, OCTOBER 20:

9:30 A.M. Opening Session—Conference Room, Annex to Recitation Hall

Presiding, Lillian Spindler Sinclair, Marietta College.

Address of Welcome: Dr. C. C. Stoughton, President, Wittenberg College.

10:00 A.M. Address: "The Social Implications of College Education,"
Judge Henry J. Robison, Director, State of Ohio, Department of Public Welfare.

12:00 M. Luncheon

2:00 P.M. Panel: "How College Education Programs Aid Industry."
Chairman, Prof. A. E. Patmos, Head of the Department of Economics and Director of Community Education, Wittenberg College. Panel Members: Mr. Lawrence E. Drum,

Works Manager, Springfield Works, International Harvester Company; Mr. Robert E. Horstman, Factory Manager, Robbins and Myers; Mr. Lawrence J. Schutte, Personnel Director, White Motor Company, Diesel Engine Division.

3:30 P.M. Campus Tour

7:00 P.M. Annual Dinner. Address: "One Foot in Germany," Morris Keeton, Antioch College Pastor and Professor of Religion; Former Head (1953-55), Mission for Germany, American Friends Service Committee.

FRIDAY, OCTOBER 21:

9:00 A.M. Panel: "The Present Role of the Registrar in Preparing for the Enrollment Crisis." Chairman, Edward T. Downer, Western Reserve University; Allan C. Ingraham, Ohio Wesleyan University; Alina Markowski, University of Toledo; Willard E. Nudd, Case Institute of Technology; William C. Smyser, Miami University; Ronald B. Thompson, Ohio State University.

11:00 A.M. Business Meeting

Honorary memberships were granted to Miss Helen M. Clark of Ohio State University, Dr. Frank B. Dilley of Ohio University, and Miss Carrie McKnight, Muskingum College. A form for reporting new enrollment was presented by Dr. Thompson. With some revisions the form is to be used for next fall. Dr. Thompson reported the final transactions had been made on the publication *Selective Service and You*. A committee report on providing "information to credit bureaus, etc.," was accepted. There was extended discussion on the need for increasing the dues of AACRAO. Mr. Robert Mahn was elected President for 1956.

The Association of Ohio College Registrars has the following standing committees: Uniform Enrollment Reports, Reports to Agencies, High School-College Relations, Nominating, Auditing, and Local Arrangements.

The above report is a digest of the minutes of the meeting furnished to the Regional Chairman by Mr. C. E. Atkinson, Secretary-Treasurer, AOCR.

SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY
REGISTRARS, MIAMI BEACH, FLORIDA,
NOVEMBER 29-30, 1955

The Southern Association of College and University Registrars held its annual meeting on November 30 in conjunction with the annual meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Officers of the SACUR for 1955:

President, James L. Buford, Director of Admissions and University Registrar, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee
Vice-President, John A. Hunter, Registrar, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana
Secretary, Jeannette Boone, Recorder, Sweet Briar College, Sweet Briar, Virginia

PROGRAM

9:00 A.M. Speakers: Dr. William L. Pressly, Headmaster, The Westminster Schools, Atlanta, Ga., "What Secondary Schools Are Doing for the Superior Student."

Dr. E. M. Miller, Dean, College of Arts and Science, University of Miami, "The Superior Student at College."

Dr. Blanche Weaver, Director, Ford M.A. Program, Vanderbilt University, "The Superior Graduate Student as Teacher."

The three speeches proved to be very helpful on the problem of the superior student and informed the audience of national studies on this problem which now are under way.

12:15 P.M. Speaker: Dean Cecil G. Taylor, Louisiana State University, "Discrimination for the College Student." Dean Taylor spoke on the college student and his ability to discriminate wisely in the matter of education and personal behavior.

2:15 P.M. Speaker: Mr. John M. Rhoads, President, American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers; Registrar, Temple University, "National, Regional and State Associations—Their Relationships and Services."

Discussion Groups: The meeting was then divided into four discussion groups for a period of about an hour.

Business Meeting: In addition to the Committee reports and resolutions, the following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, John A. Hunter, Registrar, Louisiana State University; Vice-President, Richard L. Tuthill, Uni-

versity Registrar, Duke University; Secretary and Treasurer, Jeannette Boone, Registrar, Sweet Briar College. The minutes of the above meeting will be published in printed form.

The above report is a digest of the minutes of the meeting furnished to the Regional Chairman by James L. Buford, President of SACUR for 1955.

TEXAS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS,
WOOTEN HOTEL, ABILENE, TEXAS,
DECEMBER 5-7, 1955

Officers for 1955:

President, Frank H. Morgan, Registrar, West Texas State Teachers College, Canyon
Vice-President, Jerome Vannoy, Registrar, McMurray College, Abilene
Secretary-Treasurer, Perrin C. Smith, Registrar, Austin College, Sherman

PROGRAM

MONDAY, DECEMBER 5, 7:30 P.M., Registration and Reception.

TUESDAY, DECEMBER 6

9:00 A.M. "Activities of the Texas Committee on High School-College Relations," reported by Leonard Nystrom, Registrar, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, for Principal George Broad, Ray High School, Corpus Christi, who was absent because of illness.

Address: "The Work of AACRAO's Committee on High School-College Relations," Dr. Clyde Vroman, Director of Admissions, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

1:30 P.M. Address: "Current Changes in Teacher Education and Teacher Certification in Texas," Mr. Herbert F. LaGrone, Director, Teacher Education, Texas Education Agency.

3:30 A.M. Tour of campuses of Abilene Christian College, Hardin-Simmons University, and McMurray College.

7:00 P.M. Banquet. Address: "This Obligation to Youth," Dr. Clyde Vroman.

WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 7

9:00 A.M. Address: "The Responsibilities of Education on the College and University Level," Dr. Don H. Morris, President, Abilene Christian College.

Business Session.

The Association went on record as heartily favoring the reporting of grade progress, withdrawals, reasons for withdrawals, changes in admissions and degree requirements, and other pertinent information to the high schools from which the students had graduated.

The officers elected for 1956 were: President, Jerome Vannoy, Registrar, McMurray College, Abilene; Vice-President, Grady Anderson, Registrar, Del Mar College, Corpus Christi; Secretary-Treasurer, Perrin C. Smith, Registrar, Austin College, Sherman.

The above report is a digest of the information furnished to the Regional Chairman by Mr. Perrin C. Smith, Secretary-Treasurer of the Texas ACR.

VIRGINIA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND
ADMISSIONS OFFICERS, NATURAL BRIDGE, VIRGINIA
OCTOBER 28, 1955

Officers for 1955:

President, C. H. Connor, Registrar, Shenandoah College-Shenandoah Conservatory of Music, Dayton
Vice-President, Mrs. Celene H. Sanders, Registrar, Radford College, Radford
Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Elizabeth Stearns, Assistant Registrar, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg

PROGRAM

10:00 A.M. Address: "The Daily Work of the Registrar," Mr. Roland H. Lewis, Registrar, Florida Christian College, Tampa, Florida. Mr. Lewis's address was based on the work he has done for his dissertation.

11:00 A.M. Mr. Connor reported on the Boston meeting of AACRAO and there was discussion of Mr. Lewis's address.

1:30 P.M. Business Meeting

Election of Officers for 1956: President, Miss Elizabeth Stearns, Assistant Registrar, College of William and Mary; Vice-President, Miss Marguerite Carter, Registrar, Stratford College; Secretary-Treasurer, Mr. James E. Kinard, Dean, Hampden-Sydney College.

The next meeting of the Virginia Association will be held on October 29, 1956 at Hotel Roanoke.

1:45 P.M. Panel Discussion on "The Effect of Increased Enrollment on College Registrars and Admissions Officers with Respect to Office Equipment, Personnel and Counseling."

The above report is a digest of the minutes of the meeting furnished to the Regional Chairman by C. H. Connor, President of VACRAO for 1955.

Placement Service

Under its Committee on Evaluation and Standards, AACRAO maintains a Placement Service, which serves as a clearing house for those seeking employment and those with vacancies to fill. The service is under the direction of J. Everett Long, West Virginia University, Morgantown. There is no charge for listing.

There is a fee of \$3.00, however, for those who wish to publish a notice on this page. They should send with their application for listing, copy for the advertisement (limited to 50 words) which they wish to insert. For insertions beyond the first, the charge is \$1.00 an issue. Remittance in full in favor of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers should accompany the application.

Correspondence, applications for listing, and inquiries about advertisements should be directed to Mr. Long. Requisitions and purchase orders should be directed to the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, in care of Mr. Long.

Neither the Association nor its Committee is an employment agency, and neither assumes any obligation as to qualifications of prospective employees or responsibility of employers. It is expected that at least some reply will be made to all those answering advertisements.

POSITION WANTED: Teaching, administration, research or combination thereof. Five years in admissions and registration. Sixteen months performing duties as head of office. Considerable course work and experience in testing, counseling, secondary education. Much experience in college—high school relations. Thirty year old Protestant. File available. Address FHS, care Editor (4/4)

POSITION AS ACADEMIC DEAN, REGISTRAR, OR DIRECTOR OF ADMISSIONS desired by man with Ph.D. Teaching experience in public schools, college, and university. Administrative experience in all areas related to selective admissions as well as in registration and records. Forty, married, good health. Any geographical area considered. Address: BMW, Care Editor. (1/1)

WANTED: Assistant to work in Registrar's Office in University, College of Adult Education. Must be willing to assume responsibility, work during evening hours and do some typing. Experience in a University office desirable. 2500 Adult Education students; Middle West. Position available July, 1956. Address ASO, care Editor (2/2)

